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PRE-DEGREE
**INDIAN
HISTORY**

Vol. II

Dr. C. V. CHERIYAN

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PRE-DEGREE

INDIAN HISTORY

VOLUME II

(Second year)

For Kerala and Calicut Universities

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Published by

**The Kerala University Central Co-operative Stores Ltd.
Trivandrum.**

Pre-Degree Indian History Volume II

By

Dr. C. V. CHERIYAN

V44
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Second Edition—May 1980

Printed at : Sekar Offset Press, Sivakasi.

Published by the Kerala University Central Co-operative
Stores Ltd., Trivandrum

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Academic Publishers, Kottayam, 1980

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PREFACE

This is a companion volume to my Pre-Degree Indian History, Volume I. It is the warm welcome accorded to Volume I by the academic community that has encouraged me to bring out this volume.

The book has been written keeping in view the syllabuses in Indian History for the Second Year Pre-Degree Class of the Kerala and Calicut Universities. In preparing the subject matter, adequate attention has been given to the standard and requirements of the Pre-Degree student. Every effort has been made to make the treatment as simple as possible and to furnish all the necessary information. All the maps prescribed by the Universities have been included in the book. At the end of every chapter Essay-type, Short-answer Type and Objective Type questions have been given. Map-questions have also been included, wherever necessary. It is hoped that the maps and the questions will be helpful to the students in learning the subject well.

Suggestions for improvement of the book will be appreciated.

Kottayam,
1 June 1979.

C. V. CHERIYAN

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION

I have great pleasure to bring out this second edition of my Pre-Degree Indian History, Vol. II, first published in June 1979. It is the warm welcome accorded by the teachers and students of History in the various colleges in Kerala to the first editions that made possible the publication of this edition, and I place on record my sincere gratitude to all those who appreciated my venture.

Kottayam,
31 May 1980

C. V. CHERIYAN

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CHAPTER I

Coming of the Muslims

In the early decades of the seventh century A. D., when Harsha ruled over North India, and Pulakesin II was the most powerful among the rulers of the Deccan and South India, a very important event took place in Arabia. This was the rise of a new religion which came to be called Islam. Mohammed, the Prophet, the founder of this religion, had only a scanty following in the beginning. But before his death in 632 A. D., almost the whole of Arabia had been won over to the new faith. This united the Arab tribes, and soon they became a powerful nation. After the death of the Prophet, the Arabs were ruled by his successors who were known as 'Caliphs'. The Caliphs were very zealous preachers of Islam. Under them the Arabs conquered the neighbouring countries of Iraq, Iran (Persia), Syria, Jordan, and Egypt, and spread the new religion in all these countries. In due course, Islam came to India also. The Islamic invaders of India belonged to different nationalities, the Arabs, the Turks, the Afghans, and the Mongols.

THE ARAB CONQUEST OF SIND—712 A. D.

The Arabs were the earliest Mohammadan invaders of India. Arab ships had been trading with India from time immemorial. The Arabs, after their conversion to Islam, began to cherish the ambition of conquering India. They made several attempts to conquer the north-western coast of India. As early as 637 A. D. an Arab force appeared at Thana near Bombay, but it was beaten back. Later on, other Arab expeditions came to Broach and the Gulf of Debal in Sind. The failure of these naval enterprises led the Arabs to try to penetrate into India by a land route. They made repeated attacks upon Kabul, but failed to conquer Afghanistan. They, however, succeeded in conquering Mekran (Baluchistan). This opened the way to Sind.

Expedition of Muhammad-bin-Qasim

It was during the reign of Caliph Walid that the Arabs made their first organized attempt for the conquest of India. When a few ships carrying Muslim pilgrims from Ceylon, and presents from the ruler of Ceylon to the Caliph were plundered by the pirates of Debal, a sea-port of Sind, Al-Hajjaj, the Caliph's governor of Iraq, demanded compensation from Dahir, the ruler of Sind. Dahir refused to

comply with the demand on the ground that he had no responsibility for the doing of the pirates. The governor, thereupon, sent two expeditions to punish Dahir, both of which were repulsed. Now, the governor sent a third expedition to Sind under a young adventurer by name Muhammad-bin-Qasim, who arrived in Sind in 712 A. D. marching through Mekran. Debal was captured first. Then he proceeded to Rawar, where he met king Dahir in battle and killed him. The Arabs next pushed on to Alor, which surrendered after a brave resistance. Qasim then advanced against Multan and captured it. The fall of Multan completed the conquest of Sind. Qasim then planned an invasion against Kanauj. But his career came to a tragic end abruptly, when the Caliph ordered his execution on a false charge of immorality. The Arab soldiers settled in Sind, and the territory formed a part of the Caliph's dominions until 871 A. D. Thereafter, it became split up into two independent kingdoms, Multan and Mansurah. These were eventually conquered by Muhammad Ghori.

Arab Rule in Sind

Sind was divided into a number of districts. Each district was placed under an Arab military officer on condition of military service. A policy of partial toleration was adopted towards the conquered Hindus. Muhammad-bin-Qasim allowed the Hindus the free exercise of their religion if they submitted to the Muslim rule and agreed to pay *jaziya* or poll-tax. The *jaziya* and the land-tax formed the principal sources of revenue. The collection of revenue and the details of administration were, of necessity, placed in the hands of local Hindus. The Brahmins were entrusted with high offices. All local institutions were maintained.

Results of the Arab Conquest

The Arabs could not follow up their success in Sind by any further extension of the conquest. They remained cut off from the rest of India. They were unable to influence Indian life, society, and polity. Hence, the Arab conquest of Sind has been described as "an episode in the history of India and Islam, a triumph without results". This is certainly true in respect of the impact of Arab conquest of Sind on India.

However, the Arab conquest of Sind was a significant event from the standpoint of the development Arab culture and civilization, and the diffusion of Indian culture abroad. The Arabs learnt from India all the scientific elements which constituted Arab scholarship in philosophy, mathematics, astronomy, medicine, chemistry, etc. They adopted from India the so-called Arab numerals. An Arab astronomer is said to have studied at Banaras for ten years. The *Panchatantra* and the *Charaka Samhita* were translated into Arabic. The Arabs took Indian scholars to Baghdad and patronised them. and utilized their services in getting many Sanskrit works translated

into Arabic. They employed Indian masons and painters to build and decorate their palaces and mosques. In short, India moulded the Arab civilization in literature, art, and architecture. The Arabs were great traders. They not only carried Indian goods but also Indian wisdom to Europe. Arabs spread in Europe what they learned from India.

Causes of the Failure of the Arabs

The Arab hold on Sind was short-lived. The causes for this were many. Qasim's work of conquest was incomplete, and the Caliphs did not send enough forces to maintain their hold on the Indian possessions. The Arabs who conquered Sind belonged to different tribes. They differed very much in their habits and sentiments. Once religious fanaticism cooled down, united action on their part was impossible. The Arabs had no scope for further expansion, as Sind was cut off from the rest of India by geographical barriers like the Thar desert and the Aravalli mountains. The strong opposition, which the Arabs encountered from the Rajputs, was, perhaps, the most important factor that caused their failure in India.

TURKISH INVASIONS FROM AFGHANISTAN

India was free from Muslim invasions for a few centuries after the decline of the Arab rule in Sind. It was not until the beginning of the tenth century A. D. that India was faced with the second phase of Muslim aggression. This time the invasions came from the Turkish rulers in Afghanistan.

The Turks were at first uncivilized nomads. Later on, they became Muslims, and came under the civilizing influence of the Arabs. The Caliphs of Baghdad then employed large numbers of Turks in their service. Soon, military power of the Caliphate passed into the hands of the Turks, and some of them became even provincial governors. Meanwhile, the Caliphate slowly declined, and the Turks established a number of independent kingdoms on the ruins of the old empire.

One of the Turkish officers, who declared his independence, was a chief by name Alptigin. He made himself ruler of Ghazni in 962 A. D. His successor Sabuktigin was a general of remarkable ability. He made extensive conquests and invaded India. He marched at the head of a large army and defeated Jayapala, the ruler of the Punjab. He forced Jayapala to recognize Muslim sovereignty, and annexed the territory around Kabul. When he died in 997 A. D. he had left behind him a vast kingdom and a full treasury to his son Mahmud.

Mahmud of Ghazni (997—1030 A. D.)

The death of Sabuktigin was followed by a struggle for succession between his two sons, Muhmud and Ismail. Muhmud, the elder of the two, defeated Ismail.

Mahmud was born in 971 A. D. He had inherited his father's soldierly qualities and skilled generalship. Soon after accession to the throne, Mahmud strengthened the northern frontier and extended his empire as far as the Oxus. The Caliph recognised him as sultan.

Mahmud's Indian Invasions

This recognition gave a fresh encouragement for Muhmud's zeal for conquest, and he decided to lead an expedition every year against India. In undertaking the Indian expeditions, Mahmud was prompted by two factors. Mahmud had heard about the fabulous wealth of India and the practice of worshipping idols followed by Hindus. Mahmud wanted to plunder the wealth of India to be used for his Central Asian campaigns and destroy the idolatrous religious practices of the Indians.

Between the years 1000 and 1026 A. D., Sultan Mahmud undertook seventeen plundering raids to India. In 1000 A. D. Mahmud captured several frontier fortresses and districts. In 1001 A. D. he defeated Jaipal, the king of the Punjab. He took Multan in 1006 A. D. He invaded and stormed the Nagarkot temple in 1009 A. D. He carried an enormous booty from there. It encouraged him to repeat his raids and make rich temples his targets. He sacked Thaneswar in 1014 A. D., destroyed Mathura in 1017 A. D., devastated Kanauj in 1018 A. D., and annexed the kingdom of the Punjab in 1020 A. D. He subjugated Gwalior in 1022 A. D. and sacked Kalanjar in 1023 A. D. Mahmud undertook his sixteenth expedition in 1026 A. D. to the temple of Somnath in Kathiawar. The Hindus put up a desperate fight to save the temple. But he sacked the sacred shrine, broke the idol of Lord Siva, and carried away an enormous booty with him from the temple. The temple gates were also removed and set up at Ghazni. In 1027 A. D. Mahmud led his last expedition to India. It was directed against the Jats in the vicinity of Multan, who had molested his army during his return march from Somnath. The Jats fought bravely, but they were defeated. It may be noted that although Mahmud invaded India seventeen times, the only territory he annexed was the Punjab. The Sultan passed away in 1030 A. D.

Mahmud was, undoubtedly, one of the greatest rulers of Asia. It was indeed a great achievement to have expanded a small mountain principality into a big and prosperous empire. He was a great commander and a born military leader. His Indian expeditions form a brilliant record of military achievements. He was a devout *Sunni*, regular in fasting and offering prayers. Mahmud was also a great

patron of arts and men of letters. His court was adorned by a number of famous scholars and poets. There were men like Al-Beruni, a philosopher and Sanskrit scholar, Utbi, a historian, and Firdausi, the author of *Shahnamah*. He established a university at Ghanzi for the promotion of learning among his subjects. He built beautiful mosques and public buildings to adorn his capital city, which became one of the finest cities in all Asia. The Indian masons and craftsmen, whom Mahmud took with him to Ghazni from Mathura and other places in India, became the pioneers of what has been termed the Indo-Saracenic art. In short, he was a typical product of the Persian Renaissance as well as its most magnificent patron.

But, the work of Mahmud had its own draw-backs. In the history of India his role is certainly not laudable. To the Indians he was a greedy iconoclast, who defiled their holy shrines and destroyed their sacred idols. Though a great soldier, he was not a constructive genius or far-seeing statesman. Although he invaded India seventeen times, he did not establish an empire here. As far as India was concerned, Mahmud was no better than a "bandit operating on a large scale". His Indian expeditions were nothing more than plundering raids. His campaigns had little effect on Indian history except as a fore-runner of the more ambitious and more successful efforts of Muhammad Ghori.

CONQUEST OF NORTHERN INDIA BY AFGHAN MUSLIMS

The kingdom of Sultan Mahmud continued to exist for a century and a half after his death. But it decayed from year to year. The successors of Mahmud were weak. They were incapable of maintaining the empire intact, and the sovereignty passed into the hands of the Ghori chieftains, who were Afghans. While the Arab efforts to extend their sway beyond Sind and Multan had failed and the raids of the Ghaznivids were not prompted by the political desire of territorial acquisition, the Afghans of Ghori were destined to effect the permanent Muslim conquest of North India.

Rise of Ghor

The little principality of Ghor lay in the hills between Ghazni and Herat. It was inhabited by a bold race of Afghan high-landers of the Sur tribe. In 1009 A. D. Sultan Mahmud received this principality to obedience. After his death the rulers of Ghor called Ghoris extended their power. The first important ruler of the Ghori dynasty was Ghiyas-ud-din Muhammad. He brought under his sway Ghazni and appointed his younger brother Shihab-ud-din (who later came to be known as Muizz-ud-din) Muhammad to rule over the province. It is this Shihab-ud-din who became famous in history as Muhammad Ghori.

Indian Invasions of Muhammad Ghori

Muhammad Ghori was an ambitious and enterprising prince. He regarded himself as the heir to the Ghaznavid possessions in India and, therefore, wanted to conquer India. Unlike Mahmud of Ghazni Muhammad Ghori wanted to conquer India and establish a permanent Muslim empire in Hindustan. At this time North India was split up into a number of small kingdoms ruled by one or other of the several Rajput families. There was no paramount power to which these kingdoms owed common allegiance. On the other hand there was bitter rivalry and jealousy among the different kingdoms which made united resistance impossible.

Muhammad's first aim was to bring under his control the Punjab and Sind, then under Muslim rulers. He conquered Multan in 1175 A. D., then held by the descendants of Arab conquerors, and followed up this victory by the capture of Uchh in Sind in 1178 A. D. In 1178 A. D. he invaded India again and marched against Bhimdeva, the Anhilvara king in Gujarat, but was forced to retreat with heavy loss. However, by 1182 A. D. he subdued the whole of Sind. The next object of his attention was Lahore, then ruled by Khusrū Malik, the last prince of the House of Ghazni. In 1186 A. D. he captured Lahore, deposed Khusrū Malik, and annexed the Punjab to his dominions.

The Muslim rivals having been disposed of, Muhammad Ghori next turned against the Rajput princes. He organized an expedition to India in 1191 A. D. The Rajputs joined together under the leadership of Prithvi Raj, the Chauhan ruler of Delhi and Ajmer to face the foreign invader. Only Jayachandra of Kanauj kept aloof as Prithvi Raj had married his daughter without his consent. The Rajput forces met the invaders at Tarain near Thaneswar, and Muhammad was forced to retreat with great loss and disgrace. However, Muhammad, in order to avenge this disgrace, returned to Hindustan with a much larger force in 1192 A. D. and met the Rajput forces on the same battlefield of Tarain. The Muslim forces inflicted a crushing defeat on the Rajput forces and Prithvi Raj was captured and put to death. Muhammad Ghori followed up his success by conquering Ajmer and a few other places. He, then, returned to Ghazni leaving the conduct of the Indian campaigns to his trusted lieutenant, Qutb-ud-din. Qutb-ud-din conquered Meerut, Kol (Aligarh) and Delhi, and made Delhi, the seat of his government.

Muhammad invaded India again in 1194 A. D. and defeated and killed Jayachandra, the king of Kanauj. He then proceeded to Banaras, razed many temples to the ground, and built mosques in their sites. Meanwhile, Muhammad-bin-Bhakhtiyar Khilji, the general of Qutb-ud-din, conquered Bihar ruled by the Pala dynasty in 1197 A. D. and destroyed the Buddhist viharas and libraries.

there. This was followed by the conquest of Bengal, which was then ruled by the Senas, and other places such as Kalanjar, Kalpin, and Badaon. In 1203 A. D. Muhammad became the sole ruler of the Ghori dominions as his brother Ghiyas-ud-din died in that year. But he did not live long to enjoy his reign. He was once again forced to undertake an expedition against the Khokhars who revolted in 1205 A. D. He suppressed the revolt. But on his way back to Ghazni, he was killed by a Khokhar fanatic in 1206 A. D.

Muhammad, unlike Mahmud, was both a statesman and conqueror. The conquests of Muhammad led to far-reaching results. The campaigns of Mahmud were mere plundering raids. The invasions of Muhammad led to the establishment of an enduring Muslim dominion in India, while the conquests of Mahmud led to no permanent result except the conquest of the Punjab. Muhammad crushed the Rajput resistance to Muslim advance and consolidated his conquests. To him belongs the credit of establishing the Muslim rule in India. He was the first to entertain the idea of creating an enduring Muslim empire in India and deserves to be called the founder of the Islamic empire in India. The fanaticism of Mahmud and his wanton destruction of Hindu religious institutions created an aversion against the religion he championed. But Muhammad by his political achievements and a more enlightened policy helped the growth of Islam in India.

Causes of Muslim Success

The Rajputs were, undoubtedly, men of courage and excellent soldiers. They had numerical superiority over the Muslim invaders. In spite of these favourable factors, the Hindus failed in defending their land.

The lack of unity and organization among the Hindus was the principal cause of the failure. There was no sense of nationality among the Hindus. The chief who fought or organized a league against the foreign invaders did so for the protection of his own small principality, and not for the independence of the country as a whole. Again, the Hindus had no social unity. They were divided into castes or groups, and were incapable of fighting for a common cause. Further, the military methods of the Rajputs were inferior to those of the Muslims. The Rajputs depended upon their elephants and infantry.

While the Hindu effort to confront the Muslim invasion failed on account of these political, social, and military weaknesses, the Muslims had all the resources necessary to defeat the Hindus. The Muslim invaders were well organized and were always ready to fight for their faith. They acted as one social unit. Islam permitted no distinction between man and man, and this sense of equality and brotherhood was a source of great strength to its followers. The

Muslims had great advantage over the Hindus in respect of military methods also. The Muslims chiefly relied on their well-trained cavalry, and made full use of it, while the Hindus depended on their unwieldy elephants and infantry which had no common objective. The military strategy of the Hindus was also defective in the sense that they always played a defensive game.

Thus, the absence of political and social unity among the Hindus, and their inferior military organization and methods caused their failure against the Muslim invaders.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Trace the course of the Arab conquest of Sind. Point out its results.
2. Give an account of the Indian invasions of Mahmud of Ghazni.
3. Outline the character and achievements of Mahmud of Ghazni.
4. Give an account of the invasions of Muhammad Ghori and say how they differed from those of Mahmud of Ghazni.

Short answer Type

1. What led to the invasion of Sind by the Arabs? Why did the Arabs fail to expand beyond Sind?
2. What were the cultural results of the Arab occupation of Sind?
3. What were the motives of Mahmud of Ghazni in invading India?
4. What was the difference between the Indian invasions of Mahmud of Ghazni and those of Muhammad Ghori?
5. Point out the causes of the Second Battle of Tarain. What is the importance of this battle in the history of India?

Objective Type

A. Name the following :

- (a) The earliest Mohammadan invaders of India.
- (b) The Caliph during whose reign the Arabs made their first attempt for the conquest of India.

- (c) The governor of Iraq when the Arabs invaded Sind.
- (d) The ruler of Sind when the Arabs invaded Sind.
- (e) The Turkish officer who made himself the ruler of Ghazni in 992 A. D.
- (f) The temple sacked by Mahmud of Ghazni in 1026 A.D.
- (g) The author of *Shahnamah*.
- (h) The Indian ruler defeated by Sabuktigin.
- (i) The tribe which inhabited the kingdom of Ghor.
- (j) The first important ruler of the Ghori dynasty.
- (k) The Anhilvara king of Gujarat.
- (l) The ruler of Lahore when Muhammad Ghori invaded India.
- (m) The general of Qutb-ud-din.

B. Match the following :

A	B
1. Rawar	Sur tribe
2. Somnath	Dahir
3. Ghor	Lord Siva

CHAPTER II

Establishment of the Sultanate of Delhi

Muhammad Ghori left no son to succeed to his throne. So, the viceroys in the different parts of his empire made themselves independent. In India Qutb-ud-din Aibak became an independent ruler and assumed the title of Sultan in 1205 A. D. This marked the beginning of a new chapter in the history of India which ended only in 1526 A. D. when Babur founded the Mughal empire. The Muslim State founded by Qutb-ud-din came to be called the Sultanate of Delhi as all the rulers during this period were known as sultans. These sultans belonged to five dynasties, the Slave dynasty, the Khilji dynasty, the Tughlaq dynasty, the Sayyid dynasty, and the Lodi dynasty.

The Slave Dynasty (1206—1290 A. D.)

The first dynasty that ruled over the Delhi sultanate was known as the Slave dynasty as Qutb-ud-din, the founder of the dynasty, was originally a slave, and the other rulers of this dynasty had either begun their career as slaves or were the sons of slaves.

Qutb-ud-din Aibak (1206—1210 A. D.)

Qutb-ud-din, the founder of the Slave dynasty and the first sultan of Hindustan, was an able ruler. After becoming an independent ruler, he had to deal with the defeated Rajput chiefs who tried to regain their lost territories. Qutb-ud-din faced this problem with great courage and determination. He made an attempt to capture Ghori and Ghazni and thereby unite Afghanistan with India. This attempt was foiled by Taj-ud-din Yildiz, another general of Muhammad Ghori. He was, however, able to keep intact the newly acquired territories in India and ruled as a purely Indian monarch.

Qutb-ud-din strengthened his position by a series of matrimonial alliances. He gave his sister in marriage to Nasir-ud-din Qubacha, governor of Sind, and his daughter to Iltumish, one of his own slaves. He himself married the daughter of Taj-ud-din Yildiz. He was famous for his generosity and the people used to call him 'Lakh Baksh' i. e., giver of Lakhs of rupees. He was stern in administering justice and treated the Hindus with kindness. He was a great builder. He built two mosques, one in Delhi, and the other in

Ajmer. The construction of Qutb Minar in Delhi was also started by him, though it was completed only in the reign of his successor Iltumish. Although his reign lasted only for a short period of four years, he brought peace and prosperity to the people.

Qutb-ud-din died in 1210 A. D. by an accidental fall from his horse-back while playing polo in Lahore. It may be said of Qutb-ud-din that without his loyalty and support it would not have been possible for Muhammad Ghori to retain his conquests in India. Without his farsightedness and statesmanship the conquests of Muhammad Ghori in India would not have been consolidated and preserved, and the infant Muslim State in India would have been shattered to pieces.

Shams-ud-din Iltumish (1211—1236 A. D.)

Qutb-ud-din was succeeded by his son Aram Shah. He was incompetent. So the nobles of Delhi refused to accept him as their ruler. They invited Shams-ud-din Iltumish, the son-in-law of Qutb-ud-din, to become the sultan. He accepted the invitation and came to Delhi with a large force in 1211 A. D. He then defeated Aram Shah and occupied the throne.

Iltumish, like Qutb-ud-din, was originally a slave. So he was called the 'Slave of a Slave.' He was a Turk of noble birth belonging to the Ilbari tribe, and Qutb-ud-din had purchased him as a slave. He rapidly rose to his master's favour by his ability. It was when he was the governor of Badaun that the nobles of Delhi invited him to become the sultan of Delhi.

It was no easy throne that Iltumish occupied. He was confronted with difficulties from all sides. Nasir-ud-din Qubacha, governor of Sind, had declared himself independent. Taj-ud-din Yildiz, who held Ghazni, was still trying to conquer Lahore. Ali Mardan, the Khilji governor of Bengal and Bihar, had thrown off his allegiance to Delhi, and assumed his independence. The Hindu princes and chiefs were discontented at the loss of their independence, and wanted to regain their lost territories. Some of the nobles of Delhi called 'Qutbi Amirs' expressed resentment to his rule. The Mongols under Chengiz Khan were making preparations to invade India.

However, Iltumish was a very strong person, and was gifted with the qualities of a soldier and administrator which enabled him to overcome his difficulties. He first overpowered the refractory Amirs of Delhi and brought the kingdom fully under his control. He then resolved to suppress his rivals. In 1215 A. D. Yildiz was defeated and put to death. In 1217 A. D. Qubacha was defeated.

While Iltumish was engaged in suppressing his rivals, the Mongols appeared for the first time on the banks of the Indus in

1221 A. D. under their ferocious leader Chengiz Khan. The Mongols were a savage race of Central Asia, and had over-run the countries of Central and Western Asia before they appeared on the north-western frontier of India. Chengiz Khan came to India pursuing Jalal-ud-din, the Shah of Khwarazm seeking asylum. Iltumish politely refused to grant Jalal-ud-din shelter, as he did not want to provoke Chêngiz Khan to invade India. Jalal-ud-din fled back to Iran and the Mongols also retired. India was thus saved from a terrible calamity for the time being.

Iltumish was now free to crush his native enemies. He conquered Bengal in 1225 A. D. and was able to annex Sind in 1228 A. D. He defeated the Rajputs also in several engagements, and conquered Ranthambhor, Mandu, Gwalior, Malwa, and Ujjain.

Iltumish was a deeply religious-minded ruler and was a great builder. The construction of Qutb Minar undertaken in honour of the famous saint Khwaja Qutb-ud-din during the previous reign, was completed under him. Iltumish also introduced a new coin called the silver *Thanka* which was very much similar to the modern Indian rupee. In 1229 A. D. Iltumish received a robe of honour and a patent of investiture from the Caliph of Baghdad as Sultan-i-Azam (Great Sultan). This strengthened the authority of Iltumish, and gave him a status in the Muslim world.

Iltumish passed away in 1236 A. D. When he died he was the undisputed master of the whole of northern India, and his empire extended from the Himalaya mountains to the Narmada, and from Sind to Bengal. Iltumish was the real founder of Muslim rule in India. Qutb-ud-din was, no doubt, the first in the line of the sultans of Delhi, but to Iltumish belongs the credit of being regarded as the true architect of Muslim power in India. Qutb-ud-din had no opportunity of consolidating his dominions. Iltumish not only gave it stability, but also extended its boundaries. Had Iltumish been a weak ruler, the sultanate, in all probability, would have dissolved itself into a number of independent principalities. Hence, Iltumish deserves to be regarded as the real founder of the sultanate.

Raziya (1236—1240 A. D.)

Before his death Iltumish had nominated his daughter Raziya as his successor as he regarded his sons to be incompetent to bear the burden of his empire. But the nobles of Delhi, unwilling to recognize a woman as their sovereign, placed on the throne Rukn-ud-din Firuz, the eldest surviving son of Iltumish. But, being a debauchee and pleasure-seeker, he disappointed the nobles, who now favoured the accession of Raziya and proclaimed her sultan. Rukn-ud-din was seized and put to death.

In the beginning Raziya had to face the opposition of some powerful nobles. But her courage and diplomacy enabled her to meet the situation well, and restore peace and order. She was a wise and talented woman and regarded the promotion of the welfare of the subjects as her primary duty. She put off her female garments, dressed like a man, and sat in open durbar to transact business. But the undue favour she extended to an Abyssinian slave, Jalal-ud-din, displeased the nobles. Revolts broke out, and she was taken prisoner by Ikhtiyar-ud-din Altunia, the rebel governor of Sarhind. She, however, captivated her captor, married him, and then proceeded with her husband to regain her lost throne, which had been occupied by her brother, Bahram. She was captured along with her husband in 1240 A. D.

Raziya was the only woman who ever sat on the throne of Delhi. It is true that she ruled only for a period of three and a half years and that her enemies ultimately triumphed over her. But the fact remains that she was a remarkable woman, "a great sovereign... endowed with all the admirable qualities necessary for a king."

Sultan Nasir-ud-din Mahmud (1246—1266 A. D.)

During the six years following the death of Raziya, two insignificant princes, viz., Muizz-ud-din Bahram Shah (1240—1242 A. D.), and Ala-ud-din Masud Shah (1242—46 A. D.) sat on the throne of Delhi. Bahram was a brother of Raziya, and Masud was her nephew. Both of them were incompetent as rulers and, hence dethroned. In 1246 A. D. a younger son of Iltumish, Nasir-ud-din, was raised to the throne.

Nasir-ud-din was a very pious and kind-hearted person, and he spent most of his time in prayer. As a ruler, he fell far short of what the prevailing complicated situation demanded. So his prime minister, Ghiyas-ud-din Balban, became the real power behind the throne. Balban managed the affairs of the State as prime minister from 1246 A. D. to the death of Nasir-ud-din in 1266 A. D.

Ghiyas-ud-din Balban (1266—1286 A. D.)

Ghiyas-ud-din Balban was born as the son of a Turkish noble man in 1205 A. D. He fell into the hands of slave traders, and was brought into India where he was purchased by Sultan Iltumish. He rose to higher positions and ranks through ability and merit. Balban started his career as a water carrier and later became a member of the "Corps of Forty Slaves." Under Raziya he was made Lord of the Hunt. He became prime minister under Nasir-ud-din, and on the death of Nasir-ud-din, was elevated to the position of the Sultan of Delhi. For a period of forty years Balban was the *defacto* ruler of Delhi, twenty years as prime minister, and twenty years as sultan.

As prime minister of Nasir-ud-din, Balban had to tackle several problems. The Hindus were not yet reconciled to the Muslim rule in India. The Zamindars, besides adding to the insecurity of the country, refused to pay their tributes. The Mongols were threatening the north-west frontier. The army was in a state of disorder and the clique of forty slaves known as the 'Corps of Forty' had become too powerful. The provincial governors acted independently. Balban managed the affairs of the state with great vigour and skill. He repelled the Mongol attacks and led several expeditions into the Doab to punish the rebellious Rajas and Zamindars. Mewar was subdued and the chiefs of Chanderi, Marwar, and other places were defeated. The success of Balban aroused the jealousy of the nobles and they succeeded in inducing Nasir-ud-din to exile him in 1253 A. D. But he was restored to his former position after a short while, in 1255 A. D. When Nasir-ud-din died in 1266 A. D. Balban ascended the throne with the consent of the nobles of Delhi.

As sultan, Balban ruled with an iron hand. He first suppressed all elements of disorder in the state. The Hindus of the Doab were suppressed with ruthless vigour. The jungles were cleared and robber gangs were hunted out. He destroyed the power of the 'Forty' who had become a threat to royal authority. He also took vigorous steps to meet the danger of Mongol inroads. He reorganized the army. He constructed a number of forts along the route from Delhi to the frontiers of his empire, and garrisoned them with well-trained and loyal soldiers. Many military roads were built to make quick movement of men and materials possible in times of war.

Balban organized administration on efficient lines. He exalted the dignity and prestige of the kingly office. He maintained a grand court and would not allow any kind of joking in his presence. The powers of the provincial governors and local officers were cut down, and all decisions of policy were taken by the sultan himself. He prohibited the manufacture and sale of intoxicating drinks and set a personal example by giving up drinks. He administered justice without fear or favour. He employed a number of spies to get information about the people.

Balban did not want to engage himself in fresh conquests, but he preserved and consolidated the territories which he had inherited. The only distant campaign organized by Balban was against Tughril Khan, the governor of Bengal, who rebelled against him. Balban marched against Tughril Khan, defeated him, and reconquered Bengal. In 1279 A. D. the Mongols again invaded the country and came up to the Sutlej. Balban's son Prince Muhammad defeated them in the battle of Dipalpur. The Mongols renewed their attack in 1285 A. D. During this attack Prince Muhammad was killed while fighting the Mongols.

Although himself a military man, Balban appreciated literature and extended his patronage to the learned. The most illustrious among those who lived in his court was Amir Khusru. It is said that he arranged a grand reception to Madhavacharya, a devout Hindu saint and teacher of the Dwaita philosophy. Although a despot, he dearly loved his family. The death of his son in 1285 A. D. was a severe blow to him. His grief knew no bounds, and he died in 1286 A. D.

Balban was, undoubtedly a great sultan. His greatest contribution was that he maintained peace and order during very troublesome times and saved the infant Muslim power from the dangers that threatened it. It may be said of Balban that he paved the way for the military and administrative reforms of Ala-ud-din Khilji.

End of the Slave Dynasty

Balban was succeeded by Qaiqubad, a grandson of Balban, who was only eighteen years old. He lived a life of debauchery and paid no attention to his kingly duties, and the entire administration was thrown into a state of disorder. In this state of confusion, the Khilji nobles of Delhi murdered Qaiqubad and proclaimed their own leader, Jalal-ud-din Firuz, sultan in 1290 A. D. The sole survivor of Balban's family, Malik Chajju, was ordered off to the fief of kara.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Whom do you consider the real founder of the Muslim rule in India—Mahmud of Ghazni, Muhammad Ghori or Qutb-ud-din Aibak? Give reasons in support of your answer.
2. Trace the growth of the Delhi Sultanate under Qutb-ud-din and Iltutmish.
3. Discuss the place of Balban among the Slave kings of Delhi.
4. Explain the military and administrative measures adopted by Balban to strengthen his position as sultan.
5. What were Balban's services to the Delhi Sultanate.
6. Whom do you consider to be the greatest ruler of the Slave dynasty and why?

Short-answer Type

1. What was the contribution of Qutb-ud-din Aibak to the foundation of the Delhi Sultanate?

2. How did Iltumish defend the Delhi Sultanate against the Mongol invasions?
3. How did Iltumish consolidate the Muslim rule in India?
4. What were the causes of the failure of Raziya as a ruler?
5. Point out the significance of the work of Balban as the prime minister of Nasir-ud-din Muhammad.

Objective Type

A. Name the following:

- (a) The founder of the Slave dynasty.
- (b) The Sultan who started the construction of the Qutb-Minar.
- (c) The Sultan who was called the 'Slave of a Slave.'
- (d) The only woman ruler who sat on the throne of Delhi.

B. Match the following:

A	B
1. Qutb-ud-din	'Corps of Forty'
2. Iltumish	Lakh Baksh
3. Balban	'The Slave of Slaves'

CHAPTER III

Extension of the Sultanate

THE KHILJIS (1290—1320 A. D.)

Jalal-ud-din Firuz Khilji (1290—1296 A. D.)

Jalal-ud-din was nearly seventy when he became sultan. He was a mild and good-natured man, and did not possess the qualities necessary to be a successful ruler in times of confusion and disorder. During the second year of his reign, i. e., in 1291 A. D., Malik Chajju, the governor of Kara, rebelled and assumed the royal title. He was defeated and was deprived of his fief which was given to his nephew and son-in-law, Ala-ud-din. The Mongols invaded India in 1292 A. D. The sultan was able to defeat them. But he allowed them to settle in India. The locality inhabited by them came to be called Mughalpur. They embraced Islam and came to be known as New Mussalmans. This was an unwise step, for the New Mussalmans caused a lot of trouble to the Delhi government.

The sultan's nephew and son-in-law, Ala-ud-din, who had been entrusted with the government of Kara, was a very ambitious man. Having heard of the fabulous wealth of Devagiri, the capital of the Yadava kingdom in the Deccan, Ala-ud-din marched against it in 1294 A. D., and inflicted a crushing defeat on its ruler Ramachandra. The Raja was compelled to accept his terms according to which he ceded Elichpur and paid a huge indemnity to Ala-ud-din. Disregarding the warning of the loyal officers that Ala-ud-din was too ambitious to be trusted, the sultan went to Kara to greet his nephew on his successful return from Devagiri. When the two met on a barge on the river at Kara, the sultan was put to death at the orders of Ala-ud-din. Ala-ud-din's followers proclaimed him sultan, and the amirs and nobles offered allegiance to him.

Ala-ud-din Khilji (1296—1316 A. D.)

Ala-ud-din was a bold, ambitious, and adventurous man. On his accession as sultan, he found that he had a number of difficulties to face. The central government was weak. The nobles of Delhi were very powerful and hostile. The recurring raids of the Mongols were a serious threat to the stability of the empire. But Ala-ud-din was a highly practical man. He believed that he could overcome

these difficulties by efficient administration, a powerful army, and a full treasury. Ala-ud-din's great aim was to strengthen the authority of the sultan, and to consolidate and extend the Muslim rule in India.

Unlike the previous sultans, Ala-ud-din would not allow the *Ulema* to interfere in the administration. He would do what was good for the State and suitable for the occasion without troubling himself about the opinion of the *Ulemas*. Although a strict Muslim, he made it clear that in carrying on the government he would be guided by his own discretion rather than by the precepts of the Koran. By pronouncing this new doctrine of sovereignty, Ala-ud-din separated religion from politics.

Administrative Measures

Ala-ud-din first set himself to the task of establishing peace and order in the country. He found that the troubles in the country were mainly due to the indifference of the previous sultans in administrative matters, excessive drinking, intimate social relationship and inter-marriages among the nobles, and superfluous wealth of people. Ala-ud-din enforced a number of severe laws to curb the power of the nobles. He confiscated the property of the rebellious nobles, collected heavy taxes, and stopped all pensions and endowments. He appointed a large number of spies who kept the sultan informed of all the activities of the nobles. He prohibited the use of liquor and other intoxicating drinks, and banned festive and social gatherings among the nobles. He was particularly severe towards the Hindus. They were reduced to a state of extreme poverty so that they might not even think of rebellion.

Ala-ud-din's Military Reforms

Besides keeping the nobles under control, the frequent Mongol invasions also had to be checked. Ala-ud-din realized the need of a strong army for this purpose. He, therefore, instead of depending upon soldiers to be supplied by jagirdars, organized a standing army. The soldiers were recruited and paid by the State. He also introduced the system of branding horses. He paid his soldiers in cash

Market Regulations

Ala-ud-din increased the strength of the army without incurring a heavy additional expenditure. This he achieved by a system of price control. In order to enable the soldier to live on the salary fixed by the sultan, he introduced his famous market regulations. He controlled and regulated the prices of some of the necessities of life like grain, sugar, etc. He appointed superintendants of markets, and several assistants and spies to strictly enforce these regulations. The government purchased large quantities of grain and

stored them with the object of selling them in times of scarcity. The market regulations worked with wonderful success. Ala-ud-din was, thus, able to maintain a big army at a very low cost.

Ala-ud-din's Mongol Policy

Ala-ud-din took effective measures to check the menace of the Mongol invasions which had become very frequent by this time. Within a few months of Ala-ud-din's accession, a large horde of the Mongols invaded India. The sultan's forces of repulsed them. The Mongols appeared again in the second year. This time also they were defeated. In 1299 A. D. the Mongols entered India under their leader Qutlugh Khwaja, plundering and devastating the land which lay on their route. They arrived in the vicinity of Delhi. This time also they were beaten back. But they returned again in 1304 A. D. and 1307-1308 A. D. On both occasions they were beaten back with heavy losses.

Ala-ud-din not only repulsed the Mongol raids, but also strengthened the defence of the north-west frontier. All the forts that lay on the route of the Mongols were repaired, and new ones were erected at strategic points. New workshops to manufacture better arms and weapons were set up. A considerable force was stationed at Multan, Dipalpur, and Samana. Besides this, the Mongols who had embraced Islam and settled in India were massacred in thousands. As a result of these measures, the Mongols stopped raiding India.

Wars and Conquests

Ala-ud-din was an aggressive imperialist. His first military operation was directed against Gujarat ruled by a Rajput prince named Karnadeva. In 1297 A.D. he sent an army under his brother, Ulugh Khan, who overran Gujarat and captured Kamala Devi, the queen of the Raja. The Raja and his daughter, Devala Devi, took refuge with king Ramachandra Deva of Devagiri.

The successes against Gujarat and the prosperity of the early years led Ala-ud-din to form ambitious projects. He wished to found a new religion like Mohammed, the Prophet, and go into the world in search of conquests like Alexander. On both these points he sought the advice of the Kotwal of Delhi. He advised the sultan to leave religion to prophets and conquer India before attempting to conquer the world. The sultan accepted this advice.

Ala-ud-din then decided to capture the fortress of Ranthambhor. In 1299 A. D. he sent an army for this purpose. The fortress was captured with great difficulty in 1301 A. D. Then he directed his forces against Mewar. Chittor fell in 1303 A. D. after a terrible fight. The fall of Chittor was followed by the submission of Malwa

Mandu, Ujjain, and Chanderi. Thus, practically the whole of North India was brought under subjection by the end of 1305 A. D.

Having extended his sway over the whole of northern India, Ala-ud-din turned his attention to the Deccan. The important kingdoms in the Deccan at this time were: (1) the Yadava kingdom with its capital at Devagiri; (2) the Kakatya kingdom with its capital at Warrangal; (3) the Hoysala kingdom with its capital at Dwarasamudra; and (4) the Pandya kingdom in the far south with its capital at Madura. Ala-ud-din sent Malik Kafur at the head of a large army to the South. His intention was not only to conquer the peninsula, but also to plunder its wealth. Kafur first turned against the Yadava ruler of Devagiri, Ramachandra, who had failed to pay his tribute. The country was laid waste and Ramachandra was defeated. Ramachandra sued for peace, and he was sent to Delhi to make his personal submission to the sultan in 1307 A. D. In 1309 A. D. Kafur proceeded against the Kakatyas. Raja Prataparudradeva offered resistance, but he was defeated. A treaty was made by which Prataparudradeva surrendered all his treasures and promised to pay an annual tribute to the Delhi sultan. In 1310 A. D. Kafur proceeded against the Hoysala king of Dwarasamudra. The Raja submitted without resistance. From Dwarasamudra Kafur proceeded towards Madura. A quarrel between the two brothers, Sundara Pandya and Veera Pandya, facilitated Malik Kafur's interference in the affairs of the Pandyan kingdom. Kafur reached Madura in 1311 A. D. and plundered the city. He advanced as far south as Rameswaram. He then returned to Delhi with a huge booty.

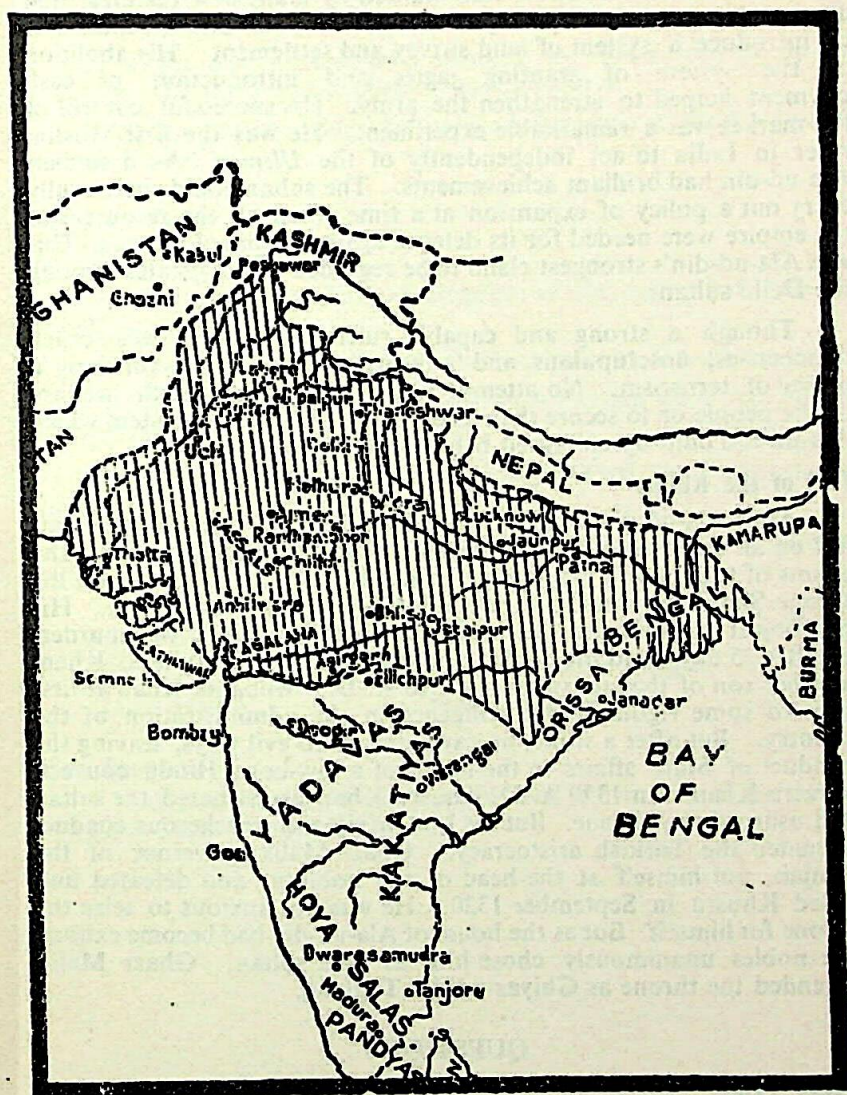
Ala-ud-din did not want to annex the Deccan kingdoms to his empire. He only required the surrender of their wealth and the acknowledgement of his suzerainty. Such a policy was the only wise choice, as it was impossible to rule these distant countries directly from Delhi.

Patronage of Arts and Literature

Though a tyrant and imperialist, Ala-ud-din was a patron of arts and literature. He was a lover of architecture. He caused a new city called Siri to be built, adorned with numerous splendid edifices. He began the construction of a new minar which was intended to excel the Qutb Minar in grandeur. He had great respect for learned men whom he liberally patronised. The foremost among these men of learning patronised by him was Amir Khusru.

Last Days of Ala-ud-din

The last days of the sultan were unhappy. His health broke down. Revolts broke out in Gujarat and the Deccan, and the Rajputs recovered Chittor. In the midst of this confusion Ala-ud-din died in January 1316 A. D.



III The Khilji Empire
 --- Probable boundary

An Estimate of Ala-ud-din

Ala-ud-din was, undoubtedly, the ablest among the sultans of Delhi. His administration was marked by many new features, and displayed a good deal of originality. He was the first Muslim ruler to introduce a system of land survey and settlement. His abolition of the system of granting jagirs and introduction of cash payment helped to strengthen the army. His successful control of the market was a remarkable experiment. He was the first Muslim ruler in India to act independently of the *Ulemas*. As a soldier, Ala-ud-din had brilliant achievements. The sultan could successfully carry out a policy of expansion at a time when all the resources of the empire were needed for its defence against Mongol inroads. This was Ala-ud-din's strongest claim to be regarded as the greatest among the Delhi sultans.

Though a strong and capable ruler, Ala-ud-din was cruel, treacherous, unscrupulous, and a heartless tyrant. He ruled by a policy of terrorism. No attempt was made to promote the welfare of the people or to secure their good will. Hence, the system which Ala-ud-din built up collapsed before his own eyes.

Fall of the Khiljis

After Ala-ud-din's death, the evils of despotic rule became manifest on all sides, and disorder began. Malik Kafur setting aside the claims of the sultan's eldest son, Prince Khizr Khan, placed on the throne Shihab-ud-din Omar, a child of five or six years of age. His real object was to usurp the throne for himself. But he was murdered after 35 days, and the nobles placed on the throne Mubarak Khan, another son of the late sultan, in 1316 A. D. Mubarak Khan at first showed some vigour and intelligence in the administration of the country. But after a while, he gave himself to evil ways, leaving the conduct of State affairs in the hands of a low-born Hindu convert, Khusru Khan. In 1320 A. D. Khusru Khan assassinated the sultan and usurped the throne. But his low origin and treacherous conduct alienated the Turkish aristocracy. Ghazi Malik, governor of the Punjab, put himself at the head of the nobility, and defeated and killed Khusru in September 1320. He was not anxious to seize the throne for himself. But as the house of Ala-ud-din had become extinct, the nobles unanimously chose him as their sultan. Ghazi Malik ascended the throne as Ghiyas-ud-din Tughlaq.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Give a brief account of the extension of the Delhi Sultanate under Ala-ud-din Khilji.
2. Briefly explain the administrative measures of Ala-ud-din Khilji.

Short-answer Type

1. Point out the importance of the reign of Jalal-ud-din Khilji.
2. What were the measures adopted by Ala-ud-din Khilji to check the Mongol menace?
3. Point out the measures adopted by Ala-ud-din Khilji to strengthen the army organization of the Sultanate.
4. Point out the main features of the market regulations of Ala-ud-din Khilji.

Objective Type**A. Name the following:**

- (a) The ruler of the Yadava kingdom of Devagiri when Ala-ud-din Khilji invaded it.
- (b) The territory ceded by the Yadava ruler to Ala-ud-din.
- (c) The four important kingdoms in the Deccan when Ala-ud-din Khilji was the sultan of Delhi.
- (d) Ala-ud-din Khilji's general who invaded the kingdoms in the Deccan.
- (e) The first Muslim ruler in India who introduced a system of land survey and settlement.

B. Match the following:

Ala-ud-din Khilji
Ghazi Malik

Governor of the Punjab
Market regulations

Map Question

1. Mark on the outline map provided the extent of the Delhi Sultanate under Ala-ud-din Khilji.

CHAPTER IV

The Tughlaqs and The Break-up of The Sultanate

THE TUGHLAQ DYNASTY (1320—1412 A. D.)

Ghiyas-ud-din Tughlaq 1320—1325 A. D.

Ghiyas-ud-din who set up the rule of the Tughlaq dynasty was an experienced general and an able administrator. He began his rule by enacting several good laws for the relief of the oppressed peasants. He reconciled the nobles and relatives of Ala-ud-din to his rule. He reorganized the administration which had been thrown out of gear in the time of his predecessor. He improved the departments of justice and police, and put down official corruption.

Having secured order in the country, Ghiyas-ud-din turned his attention to Warrangal whose ruler had withdrawn allegiance to Delhi during the troubled times following the death of Ala-ud-din. He sent his son Juna Khan to the Deccan. In two expeditions Juna Khan secured the submission of Warrangal.

In 1324 A.D. the sultan himself marched to Bengal to support the claims of Nasir-ud-din who had appealed to him for help against his brother. The latter was defeated and captured, and Nasir-ud-din was placed on the throne of Bengal.

During the sultan's absence the party that was hostile to him was active in the capital. The crown prince Juna Khan had become impatient to get the throne. The prince built a pavillion to receive his father triumphantly returning from Bengal. The structure collapsed, and Ghiyas-ud-din was killed. There is good reason to suspect that the collapse was not accidental, but deliberately brought about by Juna Khan to kill his father.

Muhammad Bin Tughlaq (1325—1351 A. D.)

After the death of Ghiyas-ud-din Tughlaq, prince Juna ascended the throne under the name Muhammad-bin Tughlaq. He was one of the ablest and the most accomplished sultans of Delhi. He possessed a wonderful memory, a keen intellect, and a highly cultivated mind. He was a man of letters, and was well-versed in mathematics, philosophy, and religious literature. He excelled in logic, and even the greatest

logicians feared to argue with him. His originality, eloquence, and culture were so impressive that his contemporaries called him "the wonder of creation". Although a staunch Muslim, he was liberal-minded in matters of religion. He was kind and hospitable, especially to foreigners.

But these noble qualities proved of little use to Muhammad. He was perverse in judgement, had no balance of mind, no patience, no sense of proportion, and short-tempered. Although generous, he committed acts of extreme cruelty. Hence, to the men of his age he seemed a mixture of opposites.

Within a few years of his accession, Muhammad brought the whole of northern India and the Deccan under his sway. His empire extended from Lahore and Delhi in the north to Dwarasamudra in the south and from Bengal in the east to Sind in the west. The whole country was divided into 23 provinces, the most important of which were Delhi, Gujarat, Malwa, Lahore, Tirhut, Lakhnauti, Kanauj, and Devagiri.

Muhammad's Schemes of Reform

Taxation in the Doab. The first administrative measure which Muhammad introduced soon after his accession was the revision of taxation in the Doab. The Doab (the territory between the Ganga and the Yamuna) was the most fertile region in the empire, capable of yielding a large revenue to the State. In 1326 A.D. Muhammad enhanced the taxation in the Doab with the object of increasing the income from revenue. But as ill-luck would have it, the revised taxation was enforced at a time when a severe famine prevailed in the country. The peasants found it impossible to pay, and left their fields to escape from the tyranny of tax-collectors and took refuge in jungles where they were hunted like wild-beasts. Thus, one of the richest and most fertile regions became a centre of war between the people and royal troops. The king realised his folly and tried to remedy the situation. He dug wells, and advanced loans to the people. But these relief measures came too late to benefit the people.

Transfer of Capital. Another important event of the reign of Muhammad Tughlaq was the transfer of capital from Delhi to Devagiri, renamed Daulatabad. The empire had expanded widely southwards, and Delhi was not centrally situated. In 1326-27 A. D. Baha-ud-din, the sultan's cousin, rebelled against him. The sultan suppressed the rebellion. However, he feared that similar rebellions would occur in the South. This together with famine conditions in the North and the frequent Mongol raids made the sultan think of transferring the capital from Delhi to Devagiri in the Deccan.

There was nothing wrong in the idea of a centrally situated capital. But Devagiri was not an ideal site for the capital of the sultanate. It would have been impossible for the sultan to offer

adequate resistance from Devagiri situated far away from the northern frontier, if a foreign invader entered the Punjab from the north-west. Nor was it possible for him to keep a firm grip over troublesome provinces like Bengal from Devagiri. In the actual implementation of the scheme also the sultan blundered. The sultan wanted not only the government officials, but the people of Delhi also to shift to Devagiri. In spite of the elaborate arrangements made for the convenience of the people, they were put to much hardship. Many perished on the way, and the few who reached the new capital had been reduced to abject misery. When the sultan found that the scheme had failed, he ordered the people to go back to Delhi. Daulatabad "remained a monument of misdirected energy", and Delhi did not recover her former glory.

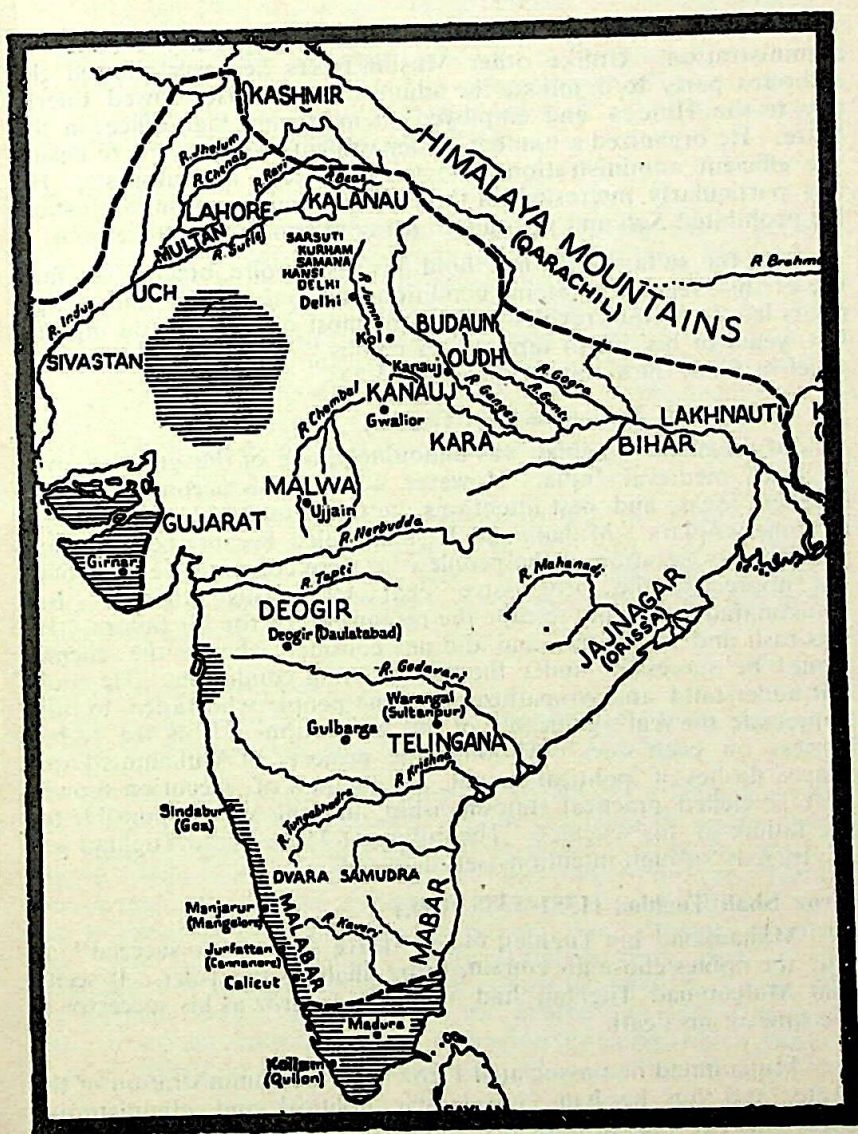
Token Currency. Muhammad Tughlaq reformed the existing coinage, and issued various new types of coins. He also embarked on a new experiment which, however, proved to be a costly blunder. In 1329-30 A. D. the sultan ordered the issue of token coins of copper, which were to pass for gold and silver coins, and all transactions were to be effected through them. The purpose of the sultan was to increase his resources to cover the drain caused by his generous gifts, taxation policy in the Doab, and the transfer of capital. He also wanted resources to launch his grand schemes of foreign conquest. The paper currency in China might also have prompted the innovative spirit of the sultan to undertake this experiment.

The scheme was far in advance of the time and the people failed to grasp the real significance of the measure. The sultan did not make the issue of the copper coins a monopoly of the State, and failed to take proper precautions against forgery. The token coins were minted in private houses, and the country became flooded with counterfeit coins. The people paid their taxes in copper and hoarded gold and silver. Foreign trade was seriously affected and the entire economic life of the country was paralysed. The sultan realised his folly and withdrew the new coins.

Conquests Muhammad entertained grand schemes of conquests. The sultan collected a huge army for the conquest of Khorasan. After paying the army for full one year the sultan found that geographical difficulties offered a formidable obstacle to the realization of his ambitious plan. Hence, he abandoned it.

According to certain scholars the sultan launched another vast army for the conquest of China. However, it has been suggested that this expedition was directed against a hill chieftain of Qarachil situated in the mid-Himalayan region.

In 1327 A. D. he annexed Warrangal and Dwarasamudram. Madura was also captured.



The Tughlaq Empire

--- Outer Boundary = Independent Areas

The empire of Muhammad Tughlaq became very extensive. A contemporary historian gives a list of twenty-three provinces into which the empire was divided.

Muhammad Tughlaq introduced some important changes in administration. Unlike other Muslim rulers he never allowed the orthodox party to dominate the administration. He showed toleration to the Hindus and employed them in some high offices in the State. He organized a number of departments with a view to ensuring efficient administration. He tried to help agriculturists. He was particularly interested in the proper administration of justice. He prohibited *Sati* and introduced many reforms to help the poor.

But the sultan could not hold his vast empire intact. The failure of his schemes, famine conditions, and mischief of the foreign amirs led to serious revolts. He spent most of the time during the last years of his life in suppressing revolts. While pursuing a rebel chief in Sind, the sultan died in 1351 A.D.

An Estimate of Muhammad bin Tughlaq

Muhammad Tughlaq was undoubtedly, one of the greatest sovereigns of medieval India. However, with all his accomplishments, excellent ideas, and best intentions, he failed miserably. According to some scholars, Muhammad Tughlaq failed because he could not get the co-operation of the people who were conservative and could not appreciate the progressive character of his schemes. But Muhammad could not escape the responsibility for his failure. He was rash and impatient, and did not consider whether the schemes would be successful under the then existing conditions. He could not understand and sympathize with the people who failed to fully appreciate the real significance of his innovations. This led to bitterness on both sides. Although the projects of Muhammad displayed flashes of political insight, his method of execution showed that he lacked practical statesmanship, and this was responsible for the failure of his schemes. The failure of Muhammad Tughlaq was a "tragedy of high intentions self-defeated".

Firoz Shah Tughlaq (1351-1388 A.D.)

Muhammad bin Tughlaq did not leave any sons to succeed him, and the nobles chose his cousin, Firoz Shah, as the ruler. It seems that Muhammad Tughlaq had nominated Firoz as his successor at the time of his death.

Muhammad had associated Firoz with the administration of the State, and thus he had considerable political and administrative experience at the time of his accession. But Firoz was temperamentally incapable of playing the role of a strong ruler. He lacked ambition, courage, and that ruthless zeal for war which was a necessary qualification for kingship in his age. It was with some reluctance that he accepted the crown. Firoz was a man of merciful and

pious disposition, and he preferred the arts of peace to the glories of conquest.

The immediate task confronting the new ruler was to suppress a move on the part of Khwaja-i-Jahan, deputy of the late sultan, to proclaim at Delhi a minor-as sultan, claiming him to be the son of the late sultan. Firoz had little difficulty in suppressing the move with the support of the nobility and the army chiefs who remained loyal to him. He was assisted in the work of administration by a very able minister by name Maqbul Khan.

Foreign Policy

The reign of Firoz was marked by no great conquests or annexations. He did not care to reassert imperial authority at Daulatabad, and made no attempt to bring the revolted provinces of South India under his control. But he tried to strengthen his position in North India. He led two expeditions against Bengal to bring it back to the allegiance of Delhi, but his attempts proved abortive. In the end he arranged terms of peace in 1360 A. D. by which he practically recognized the independence of Bengal. On his way back to Delhi he received the homage of the Raja of Orissa and several other chiefs of the neighbouring country.

In 1365 A. D. Firoz marched against Rai of Nagarcot who submitted after a siege of six months. In 1365 - 67 A. D., he turned his arms against the ruler of Sind. His preliminary operations proved to be a miserable failure. A renewed attack resulted in the submission of the ruler of Sind.

Firoz as an Administrator

Firoz's aim was to heal up the wounds caused by the tyranny of his cousin, extend relief, and reform the administration.

Revenue affairs were the first to attract his attention. Firoz was a true friend of the peasants, and he cancelled the loans which had been advanced to them by the late sultan during the years of famine. He abolished many unlawful taxes and removed the flagrant abuse connected with the collection of revenue. He reduced taxation to the limits prescribed by the Koran. Any attempts at extortion were sternly punished. Agriculture was developed by the reclamation of waste-lands and by providing irrigation facilities. The development of agriculture restored the prosperity of the peasants. Firoz promoted internal trade by removing the duties which prevented inter-provincial movement of goods.

Firoz abolished torture and mutilation as forms of punishment. He established a charitable hospital in Delhi, created an employment bureau to meet the problem of unemployment, and provided for financial help to the marriage of poor Muslim girls.

Firoz revived the system of assigning jagirs or grants of land with its revenue to his military officers in lieu of cash salaries which Ala-ud-din had discontinued. He organized the army on feudal basis. Posts became hereditary, and soldiers were allowed to find substitutes whenever they wanted.

Firoz employed slaves in government service in large numbers. The number had swelled out of all proportions to the needs of administrative machinery. These slaves soon became a menace to the empire.

Firoz was an enthusiastic builder, and his public works included towns, mosques, colleges, hospitals, embankments and canals. He built a new capital at Delhi and named it Firozabad. He also founded the cities at Fatehbad and Jaunpur. He had a passion for gardens, and laid out 1200 gardens near Delhi.

Firoz was a liberal patron of learning also. He founded educational institutions usually attached to mosques. He extended his patronage to such well-known historians as Zia-ud-din Barani and Shams-i-siraj. Afif. The sultan himself wrote an autobiography, *Fatuhat-i-Firozshahi*. He caused a number of Sanskrit works to be translated into Persian.

Firoz was a devout Sunni Muslim and was intolerant of the practices of the Shias and Hindus. In fact, Firoz was a bigot, and persecuted the Hindus. He imposed the hated poll-tax called *Jiziya* on the Hindus, destroyed their temples, and encouraged forcible conversion to Islam. He carried on the administration according to the injunctions of the Koran.

The sultan was troubled in his last days by the succession question. But he set things right. Unable to perform his royal duties, the sultan entrusted the authority to his grandson, Tughlaq Shah, and, soon after, died at the age of 83.

Successors of Firoz Shah Tughlaq

The death of Firoz was followed by a period of confusion and anarchy. The throne of Delhi was claimed by rival princes, and this led to wars of succession. Firoz was followed in quick succession by six puppet sultans. The last ruler of the dynasty was Muhammad Tughlaq V. He was a weak and incompetent man utterly powerless to end the strife of parties or to put down the rebellions of Hindu chiefs and governors of provinces. In such a state of confusion, the country became subjected to the shock of a foreign invasion.

Timur's Invasion 1398 A. D.

Timur, also known as Tamerlane, was born in 1346 A. D. He became king of Samarkhand in 1369 A. D. He then entered upon a

career of conquest, and overran Persia, Afghanistan, and Mesopotamia, and built for himself an empire. In 1369 A. D. Timur turned to India. The avowed object of Timur in undertaking the Indian campaign was the propagation of Islam and destruction of idolatry. But really he was attracted by the fabulous wealth of India. The political instability prevailing in the country stimulated his zeal for the holy war.

Early in 1398 A. D. one of his grandsons, Pir Muhammad, commanding an advance guard, captured Multan. Later, Timur himself entered the field crossing the Indus with a large army. He sacked Tulamba, and massacred its inhabitants. He then proceeded to Delhi, plundering, enslaving, and slaughtering the people on the way. Sultan Muhammad Tughlaq opposed him with a large army. Timur won a decisive victory over the Delhi sultan. Muhammad fled to Gujarat and Timur occupied Delhi. Timur proclaimed himself king of Delhi. Timur promised the citizens of Delhi that he would protect their lives. But his soldiers plundered and sacked Delhi, and massacred its citizens for five full days. Timur had no intention of staying in India. On his way back he reduced to submission Meerut, Kangra, and Jammu. He appointed Khizr Khan Sayyid to the government of Multan and Lahore, and left India with an immense booty.

Results of Timur's Invasion

The effect of Timur's invasion were disastrous.

The invasion of Timur caused incalculable ruin to the city of Delhi and untold misery to the people. Disorder and anarchy prevailed in the country. Famine and pestilence added to the misery of the people.

The invasion hastened the disintegration of the sultanate. The empire was broken up, and in the outlying provinces the local governors became independent. Jaunpur, Gujarat, Malwa, and Khandesh definitely broke away from their allegiance to Delhi.

End of the Tughlaq Dynasty

After Timur's departure, Muhammad Tughlaq reoccupied Delhi. But he was little more than the ruler of Delhi itself. His efforts to regain his lost power proved unsuccessful. He was effectively opposed by Khizr Khan, Timur's viceroy. After a fruitless reign of 20 years Muhammad Tughlaq died in 1412 A. D., and with him the Tughlaq dynasty came to an end.

THE SAYYID DYNASTY (1414-1450 A. D.)

On Muhammad Tughlaq's death Khizr Khan Sayyid, Timur's viceroy of Multan, established himself at Delhi in 1414 A. D. The

dynasty founded by him came to be known as the Sayyid dynasty. Confusion and anarchy prevailed in the realm under Khizr Khan. The dignity and prestige of the sultan was at a low ebb. After the death of Khizr Khan in 1421 A. D., three more rulers of the same dynasty succeeded to the throne. But none of them was able and strong enough to restore peace and order, and to enhance royal dignity. Alam Shah was the last ruler of the line. Bahlol Lodi, the governor of the Punjab, refused to acknowledge his suzerainty. He seized the throne of Delhi in 1451 A. D., and allowed Alam Shah to retire to Badaon, where he lived in peace until his death in 1478 A. D.

THE LODI DYNASTY 1451-1526 A. D.)

Bahlol Lodi

Sultan Bahlol was a man of military talents and simple habits. As he had been the governor of the Punjab before his accession to the throne; the kingdom of Delhi was now some what enlarged by the recovery of the Punjab. He reduced the turbulent chiefs of the provinces to submission and infused some vigour into the government. The most important event of his reign was the conquest of Jaunpur.

Sikandar Lodi (1489-1517 A. D.)

On the death of Bahlol, his son Nizam Khan ascended the throne under the title of Sikandar Lodi. The new sultan was very strong and energetic. He did much to restore the prestige of the sultanate by his successful warfare and good administration. His brother Barbak Shah contested his claim to the throne. But he was defeated and taken prisoner. Sikandar annexed the province of Bihar to his kingdom. He concluded a treaty of peace with the ruler of Bengal by which both were to maintain friendly relations. He next subjugated the chiefs of Gwalior, Dholpur, Chanderi, and several other places. In 1514 A. D he founded a new town on the site where the modern city of Agra now stands.

Sikandar restored peace and order throughout the realm by suppressing the unruly Afghan nobles and other haughty chiefs. He compelled the nobles and officers to carry out his orders strictly. He was, however, a bigot in religion. Many Hindu temples were destroyed and were replaced by mosques under his orders.

Ibrahim Lodi (1517-1526 A. D.)

On Sikandar's death his eldest son, Ibrahim Lodi, became the sultan of Delhi. One group of the nobility set up Ibrahim's younger brother Jalal Khan on the throne of Jaunpur. But Ibrahim frustrated their efforts. Then Jalal fled from Jaunpur, but was captured on the way and assassinated at the sultan's orders. Ibrahim suppressed several other attempts at rebellion by the nobility. But open rebellions broke

out in Bihar and the Punjab under their governors. The governor of the Punjab, Daulat Khan Lodi, invited Babar, the king of Kabul, to invade India. Babar accepted the invitation, came to India and defeated Ibrahim Lodi in the epic battle-field of Panipat on 21 April 1526. This marked the end of the sultanate of Delhi and the beginning of the Mughal rule in India.

Causes of the Decline and Downfall of the Delhi Sultanate.

The decline and downfall of the Delhi sultanate were the outcome of a variety of causes. The excessive expansion of the empire was the first major cause of the downfall. In an age of slow communication, vastness of territories is a source of weakness rather than strength. The central government found it impossible to keep a firm hold over outlying provinces. The various provincial governors, far removed from the control of the suzerain of Delhi, proclaimed their independence at the earliest possible opportunity.

The blunders committed by some of the sultans hastened the disintegration of the sultanate. The experiments of Muhammad bin Tughlaq failed miserably and caused great hardships to the people. Revolts which undermined the foundations of the empire broke out in different parts of the empire. The revival of the jagir system and the employment of slaves in government service under Firoz also weakened the sultanate. The policy of persecution of Hindus pursued by the later sultans further weakened the sultanate.

The weakness of the later sultans was another cause. The government under the sultanate was a personal despotism of the sultan. The success of such a government naturally depended upon the strength and personality of the sultan. The sultans who came to the throne after Firoz were all invariably weak persons. Their inefficiency encouraged the forces of disintegration.

The deterioration of the Muslim aristocracy was an equally important cause. Wealth and luxury corrupted the Muslim nobles. They ceased to be sturdy fighters and became selfish fortune-hunters and ease-loving debauchees. Their selfish intrigues and military incapacity accelerated the process of decline and dissolution.

The failure of the sultans to win the goodwill and support of the Hindus was another source of weakness. None of the sultans had attempted to broaden his empire on the goodwill of his subjects irrespective of their religion. Hence, the Hindus were not only not loyal, they were positively hostile to the sultanate.

The invasions of Timur and Babar also played a part in bringing about the decline of the sultanate. The invasion of Timur hastened the process of decline and that of Babar caused its final fall. It has

been said that Timur confined the sultanate, and Babar performed funeral.

B.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Estimate the character and policy of Muhammad Tughlaq.
2. Discuss the career and work of Firoz Tughlaq.
3. How far were Muhammad Tughlaq and Firoz Tughlaq possible for the break-up of the Delhi sultanate?
4. What were the causes of the decline and downfall of sultanate?

Short-answer Type

1. Point out the achievements of Ghiyas-ud-din Tughlaq.
2. What do you know about the character of Muhammad Tughlaq?
3. Point out the effect of the enhancement of the taxation in the Doab on the administration of Muhammad Tughlaq.
4. Explain the significance of the transfer of capital effects of Muhammad Tughlaq.
5. Why did the token currency reform of Muhammad Tughlaq prove a failure?
6. Bring out the main features of the administrative reform of Firoz Tughlaq.
7. Give a brief account of Timur's invasion of India.
8. Give a brief account of the Sayyid Dynasty.
9. What do you know about the reign of Sikandar Lodi?
10. Point out the significance of the First Battle of Panipat, 1526 A. D.

Objective Type

A. Name the following:

- (a) The founder of the Tughlaq dynasty.
- (b) The territories annexed by Muhammad Tughlaq.
- (c) Autobiography of Firoz Shah Tughlaq.

(d) The last Lodi sultan of Delhi.

B. *Match the following :*

A

1. Muhammad Tughlaq
2. Devagiri
3. Firoz Shah Tughlaq
4. Timur
5. Ibrahim Lodi

B

Daulatabad
Token copper coins
Samarkhand
Panipat
Fatehbad

CHAPTER V

Government and Society Under the Sultanate

Government

The government of the Delhi Sultans, like that of all the Muslim States of the time, was a theocracy. All the institutions and civil laws of the sultanate were, at least in theory, derived from Muslim canon laws. The Sultan, as the head of the State, was 'emperor' and 'Pope' combined in one. In theory, the Sultan was the successor of the Caliph, and was to rule according to the Islamic law laid down upon the precepts of the Koran. Many of the Muslim rulers, Sultan Iltutmish, Muhammad-bin Tughlaq, and Firoz Shah sought the sanction of their authority from the Caliph. But there were some rulers like Ala-ud-din Khilji and the successors of Firoz Shah who did not consider it necessary to seek confirmation of their royal authority from the Caliph. Under the influence of the *Ulema*, 'the extinction of idolatry, the extinction of every form of dissent from the accepted dogma, the conversion of the infidel population' – these were to be looked upon as the functions of an ideal Muslim State.

The government of the Sultan was essentially a military despotism. As the ruling class formed a minority community in India, the support of a strong army was an essential condition for the working of the Sultan's government.

The Sultan was the supreme executive authority in the State. The power of the Sultan was, in theory, absolute. However, in practice, the Sultan's authority was limited by the power exercised by the over-mighty nobles and the influence exerted by the *Ulema*.

The Sultan was assisted in the discharge of his functions by a body of ministers. The chief minister of the State was the *Amir-i-Nizam* who was in charge of the revenue and finance. He also supervised and controlled other departments. The other important ministers were the *Ariz-i-mamalik*, the *Diwan-i-insha*, the *Diwan-i-riyasat*, the *Sadr-us-Sudur* and *Diwan-i-quza*. These ministers were in charge of the departments of army, royal correspondence, foreign affairs, religious establishments, and judicial department respectively. The ministers gave advice to the Sultan when asked for. But their advice was not necessarily binding on the Sultan. There was also a body of officials and non-officials called the *Mujlis-i-Khalwat* which the Sultan

used to consult. The Sultan was free to accept or reject the opinion of this advisory body. There were several officers of subordinate rank.

The main source of income of the State was land revenue which generally was one-fifth of the total produce. Other sources of income were the *Zakat* or religious taxes, *Jiziyah* or poll-tax payable by non-Muslims, income from mines, customs and excise duties and the spoils of war.

Administration of justice was, in theory, the responsibility of the Sultan who was the head of the department of justice. In religious disputes the Sultan was assisted by the *Sadr-us Sudur* and the *Mufti*. In secular disputes the Sultan sought the opinion of the chief *Qazi* acted for the Sultan. In most cases of appeal from the lower courts, the chief *Qazi* acted for the Sultan. There was no uniform judicial procedure throughout the country. The penal law was unduly severe. Mutilation and even death were often awarded in dealing with ordinary offences.

The army constituted the mainstay and support of the Sultanate. It consisted of three parts – the cavalry, the infantry, and the elephant corps – the cavalry being the most effective part of it. The army was in no sense a national body, the recruits being drawn from various nationalities such as the Turks, the Persians, the Arabs, the Indian Mussalmans, and the Hindus. As such, it was lacking in homogeneity. There were many kinds of corruption in the army such as false muster. Ala-ud-din Khilji reformed the army organization by instituting a regular standing army directly recruited and maintained by the central government.

The Muslim nobility was a powerful political force. The position of the nobles was next to that of the Sultan and so their influence upon the State affairs was great. They occupied a privileged position, and their services were utilised in various capacities. They were appointed as governors, generals, and administrators, and they had a large share in determining the succession to the throne.

The empire was divided into provinces, and the heads of the provinces were called Naib Sultans. The number of provinces varied from twenty to twenty-five. The functions of the Naib Sultans in the provinces were similar to those of the Sultan in respect of the central government. Next to the province, the administrative unit was the *Shiqq* whose officer in charge was designated as *Shiqqdar*. The next lower unit was the *Pargana* which consisted of a number of villages grouped together into one administrative unit. The lowest unit was the village, where the old institutions of the government, notably, the *Panchayat*, survived.

Social Conditions

- Muslim society in India under the sultans was based on theory that the Muslims were entitled to enjoy a privileged position. They formed the ruling class and monopolised nearly all important offices in the State. The Turkish and Afghan nobility would not treat even Indian Muslim nobility on a level of equality. In the beginning, the non-Indian Muslims formed a body of sturdy warriors, vigorous in habits and war-like in disposition. But in course of time, they lost these qualities, and degenerated into a body of sycophants, fortune hunters and weak pleasure seekers.

The Hindus who formed the bulk of the population were relegated to a position of marked inferiority. They were known as *Zimmis* or people living under guarantees. A policy of deliberate oppression of Hindus was pursued by most of the sultans. Hindu society was caste-ridden and the caste rules were made very strict.

Religion tended to lose its hold on the people. Superstitions and heresies were steadily on the increase. Slavery was a common institution. *Sati* seems to have been more widely prevalent in the Deccan than in North India. The caste system continued to dominate the Hindu society. Child marriage became common. Seclusion of women became a general practice among the upper and middle class Hindus. The *Purdah* system was observed by Muslim women. Except among the upper classes, there seems to have been very little female education.

Economic Condition

Agriculture formed the occupation of the bulk of the people. The State suggested methods of improvement in agriculture and advanced money to dig wells, and distributed grain from royal granaries. Muhammad Tughlaq spent a large sum in giving stipends to agriculturists.

Though agriculture formed the main occupation, there were some important industries such as textile industry, including the manufacture of cotton cloth, woollen cloth and silk, the dyeing industry and calico-printing, sugar industry, metal work, stone and brick work, and the paper industry. There were certain handicraft industries also such as shoe making, making of arms, manufacture of scents, spirits and liquors, etc.

Trade, both internal and external, also flourished vigorously. India's commercial relations with the outside world deserve special attention. India had trade connections with the Malay Islands, China through sea-routes, and carried on trade with Central Asia, Afghanistan, Persia, Tibet, and Bhutan through land routes.

The Sultan, the nobility, the high officials, the rajas and the local chieftains rolled in wealth, but the lot of the common man was depressing. He was oppressed with a heavy burden of taxation. Famines, though not frequent, were not unknown. The middle class was generally well off. The prices of essential commodities tended to be cheap.

Art and Architecture

The sultans of Delhi were great builders. They had their own ideas about architecture. But as they had to depend upon the materials of Hindu and Jain temples in the beginning, and as they had to employ Hindu architects and craftsmen, a fusion of Hindu and Muslim styles took place, and a new kind of art developed which is called the Indo-Muslim art. This was characterised by arches, domes, minars, and minarets. The Qutb-Minar built by the Slave king Iltutmish is the earliest specimen of the Indo-Muslim art. The fort at Tughlaqabad and the tomb of Tughlaq Shah at Delhi are later specimens. Persian influence affected the development of music in North India and made some what distinct from that of the South.

Learning and Literature

Learning and literature also made some progress during the early Muslim period. Persian literature flourished remarkably under the patronage of the sultans. Among the poets of the period, the names of Amir Khusrau, Mir Hasan Dehlvi, and Badri Chack deserve mention. The most famous historians of the period were Minhajus-Siraj, Zia-ud-din Barani and Shams-i-Siraj Afif. Theology, astrology, and the science of healing were studied by many people, and books were written on them. Several books were translated from Sanskrit into Persian.

The Hindus were not behind the Muslims in literary activities. They continued to produce high class literature, both in Sanskrit and Hindi. Ramanuja wrote his commentaries on the *Brahma Sutra* in which he expounded the doctrine of *Bhakti*. *Gita Govinda* written by Jayadeva was another notable literary work of the period. Some notable Sanskrit dramas such as *Lalita Vighraha Nataka*, *Parvati-Charinaya* and *Lalita Madhava* belong to this period. Works on law and astronomy were also produced during this period. The only work which has any claim to be called a historical treatise was Kalhana's *Rajatarangini* composed towards the middle of the twelfth century A. D. During this period vernacular literature also developed. The Hindi literature made remarkable progress. The earliest writers in Hindi were Chandbardai, Jagnayak, Amir Khusrau, and Baba Gorakhnath. Later on, the *Bhakti* cult gave a great impetus to the literary activity in Hindi. Kabir, Nanak and Mira Bai composed their hymns in Hindi. Besides Hindi, the vernaculars of Bengal,

Gujarat, Maharashtra, and the southern States made great progress. The increasing contact between Hindus and Muslims led to the rise of the Urdu language.

Religious Reforms—the Bhakti Movement

The establishment of the Muslim rule in India produced important changes in the religious life of the people of India. The missionary zeal of Islam produced a two-fold effect on Hindu society. On the one hand, during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries Islam strengthened the conservatism of orthodox Hindus. In order to make conversion difficult they increased the rigidity of caste system. Strict observance of rituals was made compulsory with the object of fortifying Hinduism against the attacks of Islam. On the other hand, by the end of the fourteenth century a change began to take place in the relations between the Hindus and the Muslims. The two communities had lived side by side with each other long enough. The Muslims had become disillusioned about the prospect of winning India to the cause of Islam, and the Hindus had learnt that there was no use in fighting against Muslims who had come to stay in India. Both were ready to meet each other. The original animosity between the two communities began to give place to mutual regard and respect. Moreover, the Islamic conception of human equality and the Islamic ideal of monotheism attracted many Hindus. The teachings of the *Sufis*, the saints and mystics who came to India from Persia with the establishment of the Sultanate, attracted Hindu religious leaders. The *Sufis* had preached the doctrine of union with God through love of God. Many Hindu saints sought to reinterpret Hinduism in terms of these ideas. The cardinal principle of the teachings of these saints was *Bhakti* or absolute devotion to personal God.

However, it should be borne in mind that the *Bhakti* cult originated even before the arrival of Islam. Its beginnings may be traced to the work of Sankaracharya of Kalady which resulted in a great revival of Hinduism. But the emphasis he placed on the attainment of salvation through *Jnana Marga* (the path of knowledge) failed to evoke hearty response from common people. The *Bhakti* cult received a new life and became a strong force in Hinduism as a result of the impact of Islam on Hindu teachers.

The earliest exponent of the *Bhakti* cult was the great *Vaishnava* teacher Ramanuja who lived in the 12th century A. D. He regarded *Jnana* (knowledge) as only one of the means, and not the primary means of salvation. Devotion or *Bhakti* according to him, was a better means of establishing relationship with God. Ramananda who lived in the fourteenth century A. D. was a follower of Ramanuja. He preached the worship of Vishnu in the form of Rama. His disciples belonging to all castes and they lived together without caste distinction.

While Ramanuja and Ramananda preached about the worship of Rama, Vallabhacharya and Chaitanya preached devotion to Krishna. Vallabhacharya (1479-1531 A. D.) is a South Indian Brahmin who settled down in Banaras after visiting several places. He wrote commentaries on the *Brahma Sutra* and the *Bhagavat Gita*. He preached the doctrine of pure monism or *Sudha-advaita* and devotion to Krishna.

Chaitanya (1485-1533 A. D.) who lived in Bengal was another great exponent of the *Bhakti* cult. He preached the worship of Krishna as the only means of attaining the highest form of happiness. He condemned the caste system and proclaimed his faith in the brother-hood of man. His followers came from the lower strata of Hinduism as well as from among the Muslims.

The two most remarkable names in the list of the exponents of the *Bhakti* cult are those of Kabir and Nanak. Both Kabir and Nanak had been considerably influenced by the *Sufi* thought. Kabir (1440-1518 A. D.), a weaver by profession, became a disciple of Ramananda, but later on, left him and began to preach his own ideas. Kabir aimed at uniting Hindu and Muslim ideas of God, and claimed himself to be "at once the child of Allah and Ram." He taught that there is only one God and that it did not matter whether he was called Allah or Ram. His mission was to bridge the gulf between the Hindus and Muslims. He preached *Bhakti* or devotion to God, and laid stress upon the purity of mind and sincerity of heart. His followers included both Hindus and Muslims.

Nanak (1469-1539 A. D.) was the son of a village accountant. He received his education under a Muslim. He joined the *Sufis*, but subsequently left them and travelled throughout India, preaching his ideas. He drew his inspiration from the teachings of Kabir. He preached the unity of God, and condemned caste distinctions, idol worship, rituals and ceremonies. The simple teachings of Nanak won for him a large number of followers who came to be known as the Sikhs.

Namadeva and Ramdas in Maharashtra, and Mira Bai in Rajasthan were some other prominent exponents of the *Bhakti* cult. All these *Bhakti* reformers preached the principle of the brotherhood of all men and emphasised the equality of all religions.

Impact of the Bhakti Movement

The *Bhakti* movement helped the development of regional languages and literature, as the leaders of the movement wrote and spoke in the regional languages. The movement led to an improvement in the condition of the people in the lower strata of society, as the leaders of the movement condemned caste restrictions. Women gained increased importance in society, as the movement allowed

women equality with men. The movement also led to great intellectual activity and several great literary, and philosophical works were produced. The *Bhakti* movement also formed the basis for the rise of the great Mahratta and Sikh powers. Above all, the message of love and the brotherhood of man preached by these saints reached every section of the people and made men give up their hatreds and prejudices. Thus the way was prepared for a better understanding between Hinduism and Islam.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Describe the administrative system of the Delhi Sultans.
2. Describe the social and economic conditions of the people under the Sultanate.
3. Give an account of the *Bhakti* movement during the period of the Delhi Sultanate.

Short-answer Type

1. Point out the general characteristics of the government of the Sultans.
2. Explain the structure of the government of the Sultans.
3. Point out the source of income of the government under the Sultans.
4. Explain the features of the administration of justice under the Sultans.
5. Point out the chief features of the army organization of the Sultanate.
6. What was the place of the Muslim nobility in the administrative system under the Sultans.
7. Point out the organization of provincial government under the Sultans.
8. Bring out the main features of the social conditions in India under the Sultans.
9. Describe the economic conditions of the people under the Sultanate.
10. Explain the progress of learning and literature under the Sultanate.

11. Explain the impact of Islam on the religious life of the Hindus.
12. Point out the results of the *Bhakti* movement.

Objective Type**A. Name the following:**

- (a) Three poets who lived during the period of the Sultanate.
- (b) Three historians who lived during the period of the Sultanate.
- (c) The author of *Gita Govinda*.
- (d) The author of *Rajatarangini*.

B. Match the following:*Group A**Group B*

- | | | |
|-------------------|---|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Namadeva | — | Born in Bengal |
| 2. Chaitanya | — | Krishna Cult |
| 3. Vallabhacharya | — | Devotee of Rama |
| 4. Ramananda | — | Saint of Maharashtra |
| 5. Mira Bai | — | Founder of Sikhism |
| 6. Guru Nanak | — | <i>Bhakti</i> movement in Rajputana |

CHAPTER VI

The Bahmani Kingdom

The Bahmani kingdom came into existence during the reign of Sultan Muhammad Tughlaq. When Muhammad Tughlaq retreated from Daulatabad, the nobles of the Deccan rebelled against the authority of the sultan, and captured the fort of Daulatabad. They proclaimed one of themselves, Ismail Mukh, king of the Deccan under the title of Nasir-ud-din Shah. However, Ismail Mukh soon proved unfit for the office, and royal authority passed on to another leader, Hasan, in 1347 A. D. The new leader claimed descent from the famous Persian hero Bahman, and assumed the title of Ala-ud-din Bahman Shah. Thus, the kingdom he founded came to be known as the Bahmani kingdom. According to Ferishta, however, Hasan called himself Gangu Bahman in honour of a Brahmin astrologer of Delhi whom he had served formerly.

Ala-ud-din I Bahman Shah (1347-1358 A. D.)

Ala-ud-din I began his reign by establishing his capital at Gulbarga. He was a great conqueror and a capable ruler. His kingdom extended from the Wainganga in the north to the Krishna in the south, and from Daulatabad in the west to Bhongir in the east. For administrative convenience, he divided his kingdom into four provinces with headquarters at Gulbarga, Daulatabad, Berar and Bedar. Each province was placed under a governor. He administered his kingdom with justice and fairness, and the people's lot improved. He passed away in 1358 A. D. Ala-ud-din was succeeded by his eldest son, Muhammad Shah I.

Muhammad Shah I (1358-1377 A. D.)

Muhammad Shah consolidated the newly established kingdom by introducing administrative reforms at the centre and the provinces. He established a council of eight ministers, and controlled the provinces by frequent tours of inspection. He waged a series of wars against the Hindu rulers of Warrangal and Vijayanagar. He overpowered the rulers of these kingdoms after a long struggle and compelled them to conclude peace with him on humiliating terms. When Muhammad Shah I died in 1377 A. D. his son, Mujahid Shah, ascended his throne.

Mujahid Shah (1377-1378 A. D.)

Mujahid Shah was headstrong and arrogant. He besieged the Vijayanagar capital, but failed to capture it. On his return from Vijayanagar, Daud Khan, his uncle, killed him and usurped the throne. Daud Khan, however, was murdered by an assassin. The nobles and military officers then raised to the throne Muhammad Shah, a grandson of Ala-ud-din I.

Muhammad Shah II (1378-1397 A. D.)

Unlike his predecessors, Muhammad Shah II was a benevolent ruler. He was a lover of peace, and was devoted to learning. He was interested in literature and science rather than in wars and conquests. He built mosques, and schools for Muslims. When a famine broke out, the sultan imported food grains from Malwa and Gujarat to minimise the sufferings of the people. Taking advantage of his aversion to war, Harihara II occupied the Raichur Doab.

After the death of Muhammad in 1397 A. D. his two sons Ghiyas-ud-din and Shams-ud-din Daud succeeded to the throne. Their inglorious reigns lasted only for a few months. Then the throne was seized by Firuz, a grandson of Ala-ud-din I.

Taj-ud-din Firuz Shah (1397 - 1422 A. D.)

Firuz assumed the title of Taj-ud-din Firuz Shah on his accession to the throne. In the opinion of Ferishta, Firuz was the greatest among the Bahmani sultans. In the first year of his reign he reorganised the administration of the kingdom. He employed Brahmins in important posts. He followed the traditional policy of his dynasty in waging wars against the rulers of Vijayanagar and some other Hindu rulers of the Deccan. He waged wars against Vijayanagar in 1398 and 1406 A. D. He was successful in these wars, and Deva Raya I, the ruler of Vijayanagar, was compelled to send his daughter to the harem of the Bahmani sultan, and to pay a large sum as indemnity. In 1417 A. D. Firuz subjugated Telingana. This was followed by a fresh war with Vijayanagar in 1420 A. D. in which the Vijayanagar forces completely defeated Firuz. The Vijayanagar troops then occupied the southern and eastern districts of the Bahmani kingdom.

Firuz was a great patron of art and literature. He used to spend his evenings in the company of poets, learned men and story tellers. He was conversant with different languages, and could talk freely with his wives belonging to diverse nationalities in their own languages. He was a great builder. He beautified his capital city, Gulbarga, with splendid edifices and built a beautiful mosque there. He also built the city of Firozabad on the banks of the Bhima.

The last days of the sultan were unhappy. The defeat he suffered in 1420 A. D. at the hands of the Vijayanagar troops led

heavily on the sultan's mind and body. He degenerated into a hard drunkard and debauchee. He was ultimately forced to abdicate the throne in favour of his brother Ahamad. Firuz died within a few days either strangled or poisoned under Ahamad's orders.

Ahamad Shah (1422 - 1435 A. D.)

Soon after his accession to the throne Ahamad began to avenge the losses suffered by the army of Islam in his brother's time. He waged a savage war against Vijayanagar and laid waste the whole country. More than 20,000 Hindus were put to death. He forced Devaraya II to conclude a humiliating treaty, and pay a large amount of money as 'arrears of tribute'. He killed the king of Warrangal and occupied Telingana completely. He defeated the sultan of Malwa and extended the Bahmani kingdom upto Ellichpur in the north. He also waged a war with the sultan of Gujarat over the possession of the island of Mahim, but did not succeed. Ahamad shifted the capital of his kingdom from Gulbarga to Bidar. Ahamad was succeeded by his son, Ala-ud-din.

Ala-ud-din II (1435-1457 A. D.)

The first problem Ala-ud-din faced soon after his accession was a rebellion headed by his brother Muhammad. Ala-ud-din put down the rebellion, pardoned his brother, and appointed him as the governor of the Raichur Doab. He then reduced to submission the Hindu chiefs of Konkan. He married the daughter of the Raja of Sangamesvar. This was not liked by his Muslim wife Malika-i-Jahan. At the request of Malika-i-Jahan, her father, Nasir Khan, the ruler of Khandesh, invaded Berar, but was defeated. In 1443 A. D. Ala-ud-din defeated Deva Raya II, the ruler of Vijayanagar who invaded the Raichur Doab. The Raya was compelled to conclude peace, promising regular payment of tribute.

Ala-ud-din was a zealous champion of Islam, and was benevolent towards the Muslims. He founded *Masjids*, public schools and charitable institutions. He built a hospital in Bidar, and endowed it with two villages. The revenues of these villages were to be devoted for the supply of medicines to the patients treated in this hospital.

Ala-ud-din died peacefully in 1457 A. D., and was succeeded by his eldest son, Humayun.

Humayun (1458-1461 A. D.)

Humayun was a blood-thirsty tyrant who has been described as an "Oriental Nero." His cruelty earned for him the epithet of Zalim or "the Tyrant." He was murdered by some of his servants when he was in a state of intoxication. Humayun's minor son, Nizam Shah, was next raised to the throne.

Nizam Shah (1461-1463 A. D.)

As the sultan was a minor, the queen-mother managed the administration of the State with the help of Khwaja Jahan and Khwaja Muhmud Gawan. During the reign of this boy king the rulers of Orissa and Telingana attacked the Bahmani kingdom. They were driven back with heavy losses. The sultan of Malwa also attacked the Bahmani kingdom and besieged Bidar. This attack was repulsed with the help of the sultan of Gujarat. Nizam Shah died soon after this, and then his brother, aged only nine, ascended the throne under the title of Muhammad Shah III.

Muhammad Shah III (1463-1482 A. D.)

Soon after the accession of Muhammad, the old minister Khwaja Jahan, who aimed at monopolising political power in his hands, was put to death, and Muhmud Gawan was offered the prime minister ship. Muhmud Gawan was a very talented man, and under his able leadership the Bahmani kingdom reached the zenith of its glory during the reign of Muhammad Shah III.

Muhmud Gawan was a Persian who had settled in India. Gawan, as the prime minister of Muhammad Shah III, made many conquests and enlarged the Bahmani kingdom to an extent never achieved before. Muhmud Gawan subdued the Hindu rajahs of Konkan and occupied the forts of Belgaum and Khelna. He recovered Goa which had been captured by the king of Vijayanagar. He also conquered the forts of Rajahmundry, Kondapalli and Kondavidu from the ruler of Orissa. In the course of a campaign against Vijayanagar the famous city of Kanchi was plundered.

Gawan reformed the administration also. He divided the kingdom into eight provinces, viz., Gulbarga, Bijapur, Daulatabad, Junnar, Gawalgarh, Mahur, Rajahmundry, and Warrangal. Gawan reorganized the finances of the kingdom. He introduced a revenue system by which the land revenue was assessed in accordance with the area of the land. He founded a big college at Bidar. The army was reorganized and the soldiers were paid better salaries. Gawan also restricted the powers of the nobles and governors. In 1481 A. D. the enemies of Gawan, by means of a forged letter, convinced the sultan that Gawan was planning to overthrow him. Believing the forged letter, Muhammad Shah sentenced Gawan to death. Gawan was beheaded.

Fall of the Bahmani Kingdom

The Bahmani kingdom could not long survive the execution of this able minister. Once his controlling hand was removed, there was nobody capable of preventing the decline of the kingdom. The successor of Muhammad Shah III, Mahmud Shah (1482-1518 A. D.), was an imbecile. The provincial governors took advantage of his

weakness, and began to declare their independence. The Bahmani kingdom was now restricted to Bidar and the provinces near the capital. After Mahmud's death in 1518 A. D. the Bahmani kingdom practically came to an end. The kingdom broke up into five independent principalities, viz., Berar, Ahmadnagar, Bijapur, Golconda, and Bidar ruled respectively by the Imad Shahi dynasty, the Nizam Shahi dynasty, the Adil Shahi dynasty, the Qutb Shahi dynasty, and the Barid Shahi dynasty.

Condition of the People under the Bahmani Rule

Reliable sources of information regarding the condition of the people are sparse. The accounts of the Muslim writers are full of details regarding the military campaigns of the Bahmani rulers, but they do not contain any reference to the economic condition or to trade and commerce. We get a glimpse of the condition of the common people from certain observations made by the Russian traveller, Athanasius Nikitin, who travelled in the Bahmani kingdom during the years 1470 to 1474 A. D.

Administration

Most of the sultans were bigots. The government was a Muslim theocracy. The Hindus were persecuted. The sultans found pleasure in destroying Hindu temples and ravaging their territory. Humayun had invented uncommon methods of torture and killing.

The Bahmani sultans were despots. The administration was inefficient. The dissensions between the Deccanese party and foreigners in the court often paralysed the government.

The political history of the dynasty is a story of continuous warfare waged against the neighbouring Hindu powers of Warrangal and Vijayanagar. In these wars the independence of Warrangal was completely destroyed, but Vijayanagar managed to survive although at times she was defeated and compelled to pay tribute.

Social Life

Although despots, the Bahmani sultans extended liberal patronage to Muslim education, literature and arts. To every mosque was attached a Muslim school with the *Mulla* as the teacher. The sultans patronised many Muslim chroniclers and learned scholars. Architecture also made some progress. Beautiful buildings and fortresses modelled on Persian art were built in several places.

From the writings of Athanasius Nikitin it is understood that the country was populous, the lands were well-cultivated, the roads were safe from robbers, and the capital of the kingdom was a magnificent city. He says that the people in the country-side were very miserable while the nobles lived an affluent life. Though Nikitin has not

made any reference to trade and commerce, it may be presumed that inland trade was carried on extensively as the roads were safe. There is, however, no evidence to show that there was any extensive foreign trade.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Give an account of the rise and growth of the Bahmani kingdom.
2. What part did Mahmud Gawan play in the history the of the Bahmani kingdom?

Short-answer Type

1. Who was Hasan? Why is the kingdom founded by him called the Bahmani kingdom?
2. Why is Taj-ud-din Firoz Shah considered the most famous ruler of the Bahmani kingdom?
3. What was the economic condition of the people in the Bahmani kingdom?

Objective Type

A. Name the following:

- (a) The capital of the Bahmani kingdom under Ala-ud-din I Bahman Shah.
- (b) The bone of contention between the Vijayanagar and Bahmani kingdoms.
- (c) The greatest of the Bahmani sultans in the opinion of Ferishta.
- (d) The new capital of the Bahmani kingdom under Ahmad Shah.
- (e) The Bahmani sultan described as an Oriental Nero.
- (f) The five sultanates that arose from the ruins of the Bahmani kingdom.

B. Match the following:

- A**
1. Ferishta
 2. Humayun
 4. Bijapur
 5. Ahamadnagar
 6. Golconda

- B**
- Adil Shahi dynasty
 - Persian historian
 - Oriental Nero
 - Kutb Shahi dynasty
 - Nizam Shahi dynasty

CHAPTER VII

The Kingdom of Vijayanagar

Origin of the Kingdom.

The kingdom of Vijayanagar owed its origin to a movement of Hindu resistance to the southward expansion of Islam during the reign of Muhammad-bin Tughlaq. Harihara and Bukka, two of the five sons of a Yadava chief by name Sangama, were the founders of the kingdom. They were originally employed in the treasury of Prataparudradeva of Warrangal. They fled from Warrangal in 1323 A. D. when it was overrun by the Muslims, and took up service with the Raja of Anagundi (Kampili) in the Raichur district. In 1328 A.D. Muhammad Tughlaq conquered Anagundi, and appointed Malik Muhammad as the governor of Anagundi. He took Harihara and Bukka to Delhi as prisoners, and forcibly converted them to Islam. Soon there broke out a rebellion in Anagundi resulting in the expulsion of its Muslim governor. Muhammad Tughlaq then deputed Harihara and Bukka to Anagundi to suppress the rebellion and restore order. Harihara and Bukka took possession of the territory as a vassal of the Delhi sultan. However, they soon came under the influence of the famous scholar and saint Madhava Vidyaranya and his equally famous brother Sayana, the great commentator of the *Vedas*. As a result, they were drawn to the resistance movement against Muslims, and reconverted to Hinduism. With the blessings of Vidyaranya, they crossed over from Anagundi on the northern side of the Tungabhadra to the other bank of the river and founded there the city of Vijayanagar in 1336 A. D. as the capital of a new Hindu kingdom. Some scholars hold the view that Harihara and Bukka originally served the Hoysala king Viraballala III, and that they founded the kingdom of Vijayanagar when the Hoysala power declined.

The kingdom of Vijayanagar was ruled by four dynasties, viz, the Sangama dynasty, the Saluva dynasty, the Tuluva dynasty, and the Aravidu dynasty.

Sangama Dynasty (1336—1485 A. D.)

The first dynasty which ruled over the kingdom of Vijayanagar was named Sangama after the father of the founders of the kingdom.

Harihara I (1336—56 A. D.)

After founding the city of Vijayanagar in 1336 A. D., as an independent ruler, Harihara began to extend his authority over the valley of the Tungabhadra. By 1340 A. D. Harihara established himself in the valley of the Tungabhadra and the surrounding places. When Virupaksha Ballala, the Hoysala King was defeated and killed by the sultan of Madura in 1346 A. D. Harihara conquered the Hoysala kingdom. Harihara extended the kingdom upto the Cauvery in the south. In 1352 A. D. Ala-ud-din Hasan Bahman Shah attacked Vijayanagar. Harihara surrendered the Raichur Doab to him. However, when Ala-ud-din renewed the attack, he repulsed the enemy. The conflict between Vijayanagar and the Bahmani kingdom was destined to prove bitter and protracted. The conflict involved such vital questions as the control of the Raichur Doab, and the role of Vijayanagar as the defender of South India and Hinduism against the Muslim challenge.

Bukka I (1356—1377 A. D.)

As Harihara had no issue, his brother Bukka succeeded him to the throne. Bukka enlarged the dominions. The greatest achievement of his reign was the conquest of Madura. When the sultan of Madura who defeated and killed the Hoysala king, Ballala III began to attack Vijayanagar, Bukka waged a series of wars against him, and finally occupied Madura in 1371 A. D. He repulsed the invasions from the Bahmani kingdom. He sent a mission to the emperor of China. He was a tolerant and liberal-minded ruler. He died in 1377 A. D. and was succeeded by his son, Harihara II.

Harihara II (1377—1406 A. D.)

Harihara II was the first king of this dynasty who assumed imperial titles and called himself *Maharajadhiraja* and *Rajaparameswara*. Under him the Kingdom of Vijayanagar included Kanara, Mysore, Kanchi, Trichinopoly, Madura, and Chingelpet regions.

In 1398 A. D., Bukka II, son of Harihara II, attempted to capture the Raichur Doab. But Firoz Shah, the Bahmani sultan defeated him and exacted a heavy indemnity from him. Harihara II died in 1406 A. D.

The Saluva Usurpation

Harihara II was succeeded by Devaraya I (1406—1422 A. D.) after a dispute over succession with his brothers. Devaraya met with some reverses in his wars with the Bahmani sultans and died in the year 1422 A. D. Vira Vijaya (1422 A. D.) and Devaraya II (1422—1446 A. D.) carried on the struggle with the Bahmanis, but failed to win success. Devaraya II was a great ruler. He reformed the administration and reorganized the army. He was a lover of

literature. He beautified the city of Vijayanagar and built the Vittalaswamy temple. The successors of Deva Raya, Mallikarjuna and Virupaksha, were incompetent as rulers. The Bahmani sultan and the ruler of Orissa took advantage of this to renew their aggression. The very existence of Vijayanagar was threatened. In this critical situation Saluva Narasimha, chieftain of Chandragiri, deposed Virupaksha, and seized the throne for himself in 1486 A. D. He founded the rule of the Saluva dynasty in Vijayanagar. This event is known as Saluva Usurpation or the First Usurpation.

Saluva Dynasty (1486-1505 A. D.)

Saluva Narasimha suppressed the rebellious feudatories of the empire. He re-established the control over the Tulu country. He also subjugated the Tamil country before he died in 1491 A. D. Narasimha Saluva was succeeded by his two sons in quick succession. In 1505 A. D., during the reign of his second son, Immidi Narasimha, the Tuluva chief Vira Narasimha usurped the throne and laid the foundation of the Tuluva dynasty. This event is known as the Tuluva Usurpation or the Second Usurpation.

Tuluva Dynasty (1505-1569 A. D.)

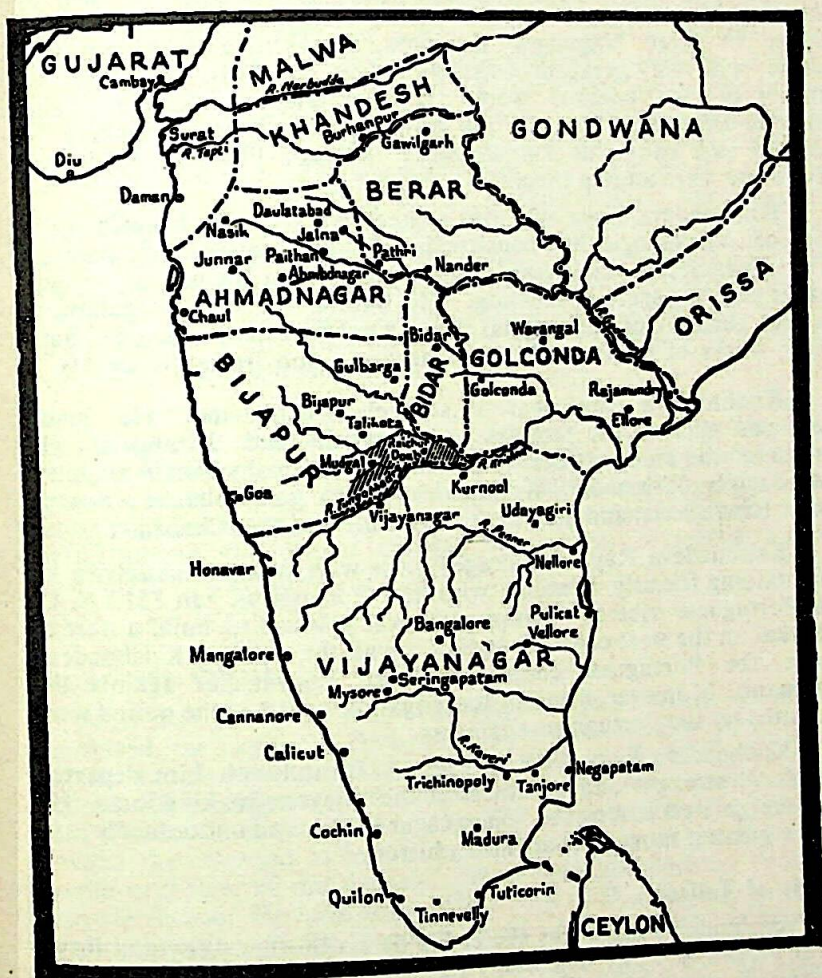
Vira Narasimha's reign lasted only for four years, from 1505-1509 A. D. He was succeeded by his half-brother, Krishnadeva Raya.

Krishnadeva Raya (1509-1529 A.D.)

Krishnadeva Raya was only 22 years old when he ascended the throne. At the time of his accession the kingdom was disturbed by internal rebellions and threatened by external enemies. Taking advantage of the political instability at Vijayanagar some of the chiefs of Mysore raised the standard of revolt and defied the authority of the king. Bijapur was continuing the Bahmani tradition of hostility against Vijayanagar. The king of Orissa still occupied the eastern coast as far south as Nellore. On the western coast the Portuguese had occupied Goa. To meet these dangers, Krishnadeva Raya organised a mighty army. He entered into a treaty with the Portuguese by which they promised to supply any number of horses to him.

Krishnadeva Raya began by suppressing the rebellious vassals and reduced them to submission. Next, he obtained possession of the Raichur Doab. Then he turned his attention towards his hostile neighbours. In 1513 A. D. he defeated Gajapati Prataparudra, the king of Orissa, and recovered from him those portions of Vijayanagar territory which the latter had conquered from his weak predecessors. In 1514 A. D. he captured the fortress of Udayagiri. Next, he acquired the fortress of Kondavidu and, thereafter, Kondapalli was acquired. After his success against Orissa, Krishnadeva Raya turned against the sultan of Bijapur whom he defeated

in 1520 A. D. He ravaged Bijapur and razed the fortress of Gulbarga to the ground. He was, thus, successful in humbling the pride of his hostile neighbours. As a result of these exploits the



Vijayanagar under Krishnadeva Raya

authority of Krishnadeva Raya extended as far as south Konkon in the west, Vizagaptnam in the east, and the extremity of the Indian peninsula in the south. His authority seems to have been acknowledged also in several islands of the Indian Ocean.

Krishnadeva Raya was not only a great conqueror but also a great statesman and administrator, and a liberal patron of arts and letters. He re-organized the administration of his kingdom. He maintained peace and order, and practised religious tolerance. His control of local administration was strict and steady. Himself an accomplished scholar, he extended liberal patronage to men of letters. He was familiarly known as *Andhra Bhoja*. He was an adept in three languages—Kannada, Sanskrit, and Telugu, and wrote with very great proficiency in the last two. He was the author of two poetical works, *Ushaparinayam* in Sanskrit, and *Amuktamalyada* in Telugu. He gathered around him a galaxy of learned men known as *Ashtadiggajas*. Allasani Peddana and Nand Timmana were among them.

Krishnadeva Raya was also a great builder. He beautified the city of Vijayanagar by constructing several temples and palaces. The Hazararama and Vittalaswamy temples in the city of Vijayanagar deserve special mention. He built a new city, Nagalapura in the vicinity of the capital city. Krishnadeva Raya also built many works of public utility such as roads and irrigation canals.

Krishnadeva Raya was a staunch Vaishnavite. He made generous gifts to the temples at Tirupathi and Srirangam. He promoted the study of the *Vedas* and erected many Hindu temples. Although a Vishnavite, Krishnadeva Raya was tolerant towards other Hindu sects and also to the Muslims and the Christians.

Krishnadeva Raya encouraged trade with western countries by maintaining friendly relations with the Portuguese. In 1510 A. D. the Portuguese viceroy Albuquerque was allowed to build a fort at Bhatkal on the west coast of India. In all the wars of Krishnadeva Raya, the Portuguese co-operated with Vijayanagar against the Bahmanis. Moreover, many of the irrigation works of the period were executed by the Portuguese engineers.

Krishnadeva Raya died in 1529 A. D. and with him departed the glory, strength and greatness of the Vijayanagar kingdom. He was the greatest among the Vijayanagar kings, and undoubtedly one of the greatest monarchs of Indian history.

Battle of Talikota

Krishnadeva Raya was succeeded by his brother Achyutha Raya (1529 – 1542 A. D.). The new ruler was a man of weak character, lacking in personal courage. During his time rival political groups came into existence. The central authority was, therefore, weakened. On his death, the throne passed to his nephew, Sadasiva Raya. Under Sadasiva Raya political power was actually exercised by his minister Rama Raya. This able, but tactless, minister interfered in the quarrels of the Muslim sultans, hoping thereby to restore the power and prestige of Vijayanagar. He formed an

alliance with Ahmadnagar and Golconda against Bijapur and inflicted a series of severe defeats on Adil Shah. Then he joined Bijapur against Ahmadnagar and Golconda. The territory of Ahmadnagar was ravaged by the triumphant army of Vijayanagar. According to Ferishta, the Hindu soldiers manhandled the Muslim women and dishonoured the Koran. As a reaction against the arrogant behaviour of the Hindus, the Muslim rulers forgot their former rivalries and joined together against Rama Raya. Berar did not join this confederacy of Muslim sultans. The combined armies of Bijapur, Golconda, Bidar and Ahmadnagar marched against Vijayanagar and met the Vijayanagar forces near the town of Talikotta on the banks of the Krishna on 23 January 1565. The Muslim forces inflicted a crushing defeat on the Hindu forces. Rama Raya was captured and beheaded by the sultan of Ahmadnagar with his own hands. The victorious Muslim army entered the city of Vijayanagar and destroyed it mercilessly. Sewell says: "Never perhaps in the history of the world has such havoc been wrought, and wrought so suddenly on so splendid a city...."

Though the battle of Talikotta crippled the Vijayanagar kingdom it could not blot it out of existence. After their victory, there arose mutual jealousy among the four sultans which prevented them from combining together to put an end to the Vijayanagar kingdom. The quarrel among the sultans enabled Vijayanagar to recover a part of its territory and power.

The Aravidu Dynasty

After the battle of Talikotta, Rama Raya's brother, Tirumala transferred the capital to Penugonda. He succeeded in restoring a part of the power and prestige of the empire. In 1570 A.D. he deposed King Sadasiva and seized the throne for himself. This event is some times described as the Third Usurpation. The dynasty to which he belonged is known as the Aravidu dynasty. Ranga II was the next ruler of this dynasty. Then came his brother, Venkata II, to the throne. He ruled from 1586—1614 A.D. During his reign the disintegration of the kingdom set in. He committed the mistake of recognizing the complete autonomy of the kingdom of Mysore which was founded by Raja Odeyar in 1612 A.D. He transferred the capital to Chandragiri. On his death, there was a war of succession which further disrupted the kingdom. The last important ruler of this dynasty was Ranga II. He had to face renewed attacks by the sultans of Bijapur and Golconda and internal rebellions headed by vassal chieftains. Gradually, the kingdom split in to a number of small independent units. The decline of the empire was complete within a little over half a century since the battle of Talikotta.

ADMINISTRATION AND SOCIAL LIFE IN VIJAYANAGAR

The Administration of Vijayanagar

Central Government : The king was the fountain head of power in the State. He was the supreme civil, military, and judicial authority. But the Vijayanagar king was not a tyrant. He governed the country according to *dharma*, and had always the interests of the kingdom and the welfare of the people at heart. Krishnadeva Raya wrote in the *Amuktamalyada* that "A crowned king should always rule with an eye towards *dharma*."

There was a council of ministers to assist the king in the work of administration. The number of ministers is not definitely known. The ministers were appointed and dismissed by the king, and held their posts at the king's pleasure. The ministers were selected from the Brahmin, Kshatriya and Vaishya castes. Sometimes, the office of the minister was hereditary, but this was not so in all cases. Besides the ministers, there were other officers holding lower ranks such as the chief treasurer, the officer-in-charge of jewels, the officer-in-charge of commerce, the prefect of police, the master of the horses, and so on. There was also a secretariat to attend to the details of administration.

Provincial Government. The Vijayanagar kingdom was divided into six provinces. Each province was under a governor called *nayak* who was either a member of the royal family, or an influential noble. The governor exercised civil, military, and judicial powers within his province. He had to furnish an account of the income and expenditure of his province to the central government. He was also required to send military assistance in time of need.

Local Administration. The provinces were divided into *nadus* or districts which were further sub-divided into a number of villages and towns. The village was the lowest unit of administration. Each village was a self-sufficient unit. There was a village assembly in every village. It carried on the administration of the village through its hereditary officers.

Finance. The main source of income of the State was land-tax. The Vijayanagar kings seem to have collected a little over one-sixth of the gross produce as the share of the State. Besides the land tax, the government levied the grazing tax, marriage tax, the customs duty and a tax on gardening. Prostitutes were taxed, and the large income derived from this source was spent on maintaining a police force attached to the prefect of the city.

Justice. The king was the fountain head of justice. There were regular courts. The judges were appointed by the king. The village assembly functioned as a court to decide cases in which villagers were involved. Justice in civil cases was dispensed according

to the principles of Hindu law and local usage. The criminal law was very severe. Fines were levied and torture was frequently resorted to. Theft, adultery and treason were punished with death or mutilation.

Army. The Vijayanagar kings had a carefully organized military department under the control of the *Dandanayaka* (Commander-in-chief). The State maintained a large army, the strength of which varied from time to time. The regular troops of the king were reinforced by soldiers supplied by the feudatories and nobles. The army consisted of the infantry, the cavalry, the elephants, the camels and the artillery.

Religious Policy. The Vijayanagar kings were Vaishnavites. But the State did not interfere with the religious life of its citizens. All religions were tolerated in the Vijayanagar kingdom. Many Muslims were employed under the Vijayanagar kings.

Economic Condition

Vijayanagar was a very wealthy country. Foreign travellers who visited Vijayanagar such as Nicolo Conti, Abdur Razzaq, and Domingo Paes have left glowing accounts of its splendour and wealth. The Vijayanagar rulers encouraged agriculture in the different parts of the kingdom by following a wise irrigation policy. Various industries such as textile manufacture, mining, and metallurgy also flourished in the Vijayanagar kingdom. Trade, and commerce also flourished vigorously. Trade, both inland and foreign, also flourished well. The Vijayanagar kingdom had commercial relations with the islands in the Indian Ocean, the Malay Archipelago, Burma, China, Arabia, Persia, South Africa, Abyssinia, and Portugal. The chief articles exported were cloth, rice, iron, saltpetre, sugar, and spices. The imports into Vijayanagar included horses, elephants, pearls, copper, coal, mercury, China silks and velvets. Vijayanagar had a small navy of its own and people were acquainted with the art of ship building. Vijayanagar had gold, silver and copper coins. The upper middle classes of the people were wealthy. The common people were poor. Still they had to bear the brunt of taxation. However, they were much more prosperous than the people in the Bahmani kingdom.

Social Life

Society seems to have been well-organized. Women occupied a high position and took an active part in the political, social and literary life of the country. Women were given training in wrestling, in the use of weapons of offence and defence, in music and in fine arts. Some of them received literary education also. Polygamy was recognized and was practised by the wealthy people. Child marriage was common. Among the rich people dowry system was in vogue.

Widows committed *Sati* on the funeral pyres of their husbands. The Brahmins exercised great influence in society. The kings and the common people ate all kinds of animal food, except the flesh of oxen and cows.

Religion

The kingdom of Vijayanagar served a historical purpose by acting as the champion of Hindu religion and culture against the aggressions of the Muslims in southern India. There was a remarkable revival of the Hindu religion under the patronage of the Vijayanagar kings. There was also an unprecedented development of temple building activity.

Literature

The Vijayanagar kings were fond of learning, and patronised men of letters. They encouraged Sanskrit, Telugu, Tamil and Kannada languages and literatures. Sayana, the famous commentator of the *Vedas*, and his brother Madhava Vidyaranya, flourished in the early days of the Vijayanagar rule. Under Krishnadeva Raya literary activity reached its zenith. The king himself was a scholar and author of renown. There were great poets, philosophers and religious teachers at his court. His court was adorned by eight Telugu poets known as *Ashtadiggajas*, the most important of whom was Allasani Peddana. The example set by Krishnadeva Raya was continued by his successors.

Arts and Architecture

The Vijayanagar rulers patronised arts and architecture also. Temples of remarkable beauty were constructed by the kings. The Hazararama temple constructed by Krishnadeva Raya has been described as "one of the most perfect specimens of Hindu temple architecture in existence". The Vitthalaswamy temple is another example of the excellent architecture produced by Vijayanagar kings. Painting was also patronised. Music, too, was greatly encouraged. Drama also received due attention.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Give a brief account of the rise and fall of the Vijayanagar kingdom. To what it did owe its greatness?
2. Explain the political and cultural achievements of Krishnadeva Raya.
3. Give an account of the splendour and glory of Vijayanagar under Krishnadeva Raya.

4. Out-line the history of Vijayanagar from 1530—1630. A. D.
5. Sketch the relations between the Bahmani and Vijayanagar kingdoms.
6. Trace the circumstances under which Vijayanagar was founded and estimate her contribution to religion and culture.
7. Trace the course of events that led to the battle of Talikotta. What were the results of the battle?

Short—answer Type

1. Trace the course of events that resulted in the foundation of Vijayanagar.
2. What were the achievements of the Sangama dynasty?
3. Describe the events that led to the Saluva and Tuluva Usurpations.
4. Describe the efforts of the Aravidu kings to revive the former glory of Vijayanagar.
5. Briefly describe the cultural contributions of the Vijayanagar kings.
6. Give an account of the administrative system of the Vijayanagar kingdom.

Objective Type.

A. Name the following:

- (a) The founders of Vijayanagar kingdom.
- (b) The ruler who seized power from the last Sangama king.
- (c) The greatest of the Vijayanagar kings.
- (d) The ruler of Orissa when Krishnadeva Raya ruled Vijayanagar.
- (e) The Sanskrit work composed by Krishnadeva Raya.
- (f) The Telugu work composed by Krishnadeva Raya.
- (g) The Vijayanagar king when the battle of Talikotta was fought.

B. Match the following:

- | A | B |
|------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| (1) Battle of Talikotta | Penugonda |
| (2) Capital of Aravidu kings | Nicolo conti |
| (3) Venetian Nobleman | The court poet of Krishnadeva Raya |
| (4) Peddana. | Rama Raya |

CHAPTER VIII

Establishment of the Mughal Empire

Northern India on the Eve of the Mughal Conquest

On the eve of the Mughal conquest North India lay disunited without a paramount authority exercising centralised power. The sultanate of Delhi had broken up into a number of independent principalities, provinces and jagirs. The rule of Ibrahim Lodi, the sultan of Delhi, was confined to Delhi. The sultan was weak and unpopular, and his authority was nowhere respected. The Punjab was nominally a fief of Delhi, but it was held by the Afghan governor, Daulat Khan, who was practically independent. Sind, Gujarat, and Multan in the west, and Jaunpur, Oudh, Bengal, and Orissa in the east had formed themselves into independent kingdoms. Bihar was nominally under Delhi. Malwa and Khandesh in the central region were ruled by Muslim kings. Rajputana was held by several chieftains. The most famous among the Rajput princes was Rana Sanga of Mewar. All these States fought among themselves and tried to grab each others territory.

Thus, North India was a land of warring kingdoms without any unity or sense of nationality. The frontiers were entirely unguarded. The mutual rivalries and jealousies of the chieftains and nobles were such that they felt no qualm of conscience in inviting a foreigner to invade the country to overthrow the government of the unpopular sultan of Delhi.

BABAR (1526-1530 A. D.)

Early Life of Babar

Zahir-ud-din Babar, born in 1483 A. D., was related to Timur on his father's side, and traced his descent from Chenghis Khan through his mother. His father was the chief of a small principality called Farghana in Turkistan. He became king of Farghana at the early age of eleven on the death of his father in 1494 A. D. He cherished the desire of conquering Samarkhand, the capital city of the kingdom of his great ancestor, Timur. His two attempts to take possession of Samarkhand in 1497 A. D. and 1503 A. D. ended in failure. To add to his misfortunes, he was deprived of his own kingdom of Farghana and had to wander about for one year. In 1504 A. D. he conquered Kabul.

Invasions of India

From Kabul, Babar turned his attention to the plains of Hindustan. He looked upon Hindustan as an inheritance from Timur, and desired to conquer it. During the period 1512-1525 A. D. he led several expeditions to India. In 1519 A. D. he captured Bajaur and Peshawar. Next year he advanced up to Sialkot. In 1522 A. D. he conquered Kandahar, and placed it under the charge of his son Kamran. At this time the sultanate of Delhi was governed by Sultan Ibrahim Lodi who had alienated the sympathies of his nobles by his insolent manners. Daulat Khan Lodi, the Afghan governor of the Punjab, and Ala-ud-din Alam Khan, Ibrahim's uncle, informed Babar of what was passing in Hindustan and sought his aid against the ruler of Delhi. Rana Sanga also welcomed the Mughal invader. In 1524 A. D. Babar invaded the punjab and captured Lahore. But Daulat Khan Lodi suddenly deserted him, and Babar had to return to Kabul. In November 1525 Babar came back. He entered the punjab, secured the submission of Daulat Khan Lodi and Alam Khan Lodi, and proceeded towards Delhi. Sultan Ibrahim Lodi, hearing about Babar's advance, came out of Delhi and met him at the historic battle field of Panipat on 21 April 1526. After a stiff fight sultan Ibrahim's forces were routed, and Babar occupied Delhi and Agra.

Though master of Delhi and Agra, Babar was not yet master of Hindustan. He had to subdue the Rajputs, the most powerful of whom was Rana Sanga of Mewar. The rulers of Marwar, Ambar, Gwalior, Ajmer, Chanderi, and Boondi allied themselves with him and marched against Babar. In the battle that followed at Khanua near Sikri in 1527 A. D., the Rajputs were defeated. Babar, then, turned against the Afghans, who inspite of their defeat at Panipat, were still strong in Bihar and further east. Babar knew that they must be crushed before he could rest in peace. So he marched against them and defeated the Afghan chiefs on the banks of Gogra, a little above Patna, in 1529 A. D. Thus, within a period of two years, Babar won three important battles, and established his mastery over Hindustan. But he had no time to organize his new conquests. He died in 1530 A. D.

An Estimate of Babar

Babar is one of the most interesting personalities in the history of Asia. He is remembered for his Indian conquests which inaugurated the Mughal rule in India. He won three important victories within the short span of three years. Thus, from the military point of view, he was the founder of the Mughal empire. But he was not destined to consolidate his conquests in India. The empire he founded was overthrown and Afghan rule was re-established. It was his famous grandson Akbar who established the empire on secure

foundations. Hence, some historians characterise him as merely the founder of the Mughal dynasty. They say that he was not the founder of the Mughal empire. But this is not a proper interpretation of facts. Had he lived longer, he would certainly have done the work of consolidation. Moreover, it was on the foundation laid by Babar that Akbar built the Mughal empire. Hence, Babar is to be regarded as the first founder of the Mughal empire, and Akbar as only the second founder of the empire.

HUMAYUN (1530—40 and 1555—56 A. D.)

On 29 December 1530, three days after the death of Babar, his eldest son, Nasir-ud-din Muhammad Humayun, became the ruler of Hindustan. It was not an easy throne that Humayun inherited from his father, nor was he capable of holding it. Although Babar had conquered Hindustan, he had not consolidated his conquests. Soon after his accession, Humayun was faced with many difficulties. Bahadur Shah, the ruler of Gujarat, had won a great victory over the Rajputs and was making preparations to invade Agra. The Afghans of Bihar and Bengal had found a new leader in Sher Khan, and were now trying to regain their lost power and prestige. Humayun's three brothers, Kamran, Hindal, and Askari, whom he had appointed governors of Kabul, Mewar and Sambhal respectively, were not faithful to him. But, Humayun himself was his worst enemy. Although the young king was gallant, courteous, witty and generous, he was incapable of making prompt decisions and taking quick action. He lacked perseverance and could not pursue his plans with determination.

Humayun faced his difficulties boldly in the early years of his reign. He first led an expedition against the strong fortress of Kalanjar in Bundelkhand, then ruled by a pro-Afghan Hindu chief. Receiving a large sum of money from him, Humayun turned to meet the Afghans. He marched into Bihar and defeated Mahmud Lodi, the Afghan pretender, near Lucknow in 1531 A. D. Mahmud was killed in battle and the leadership of the Afghans now passed into the hands of Sher Khan who cherished the dream of driving the Mughals out of India. Humayun marched against Chunar held by Sher Khan. After a siege of four months, Sher Khan agreed to submit. After accepting Sher Khan's nominal submission Humayun turned against Bahadur Shah of Gujarat who had given shelter to the Lodi refugees. He defeated Bahadur Shah, and captured Malwa and Gujarat and occupied the country. But his triumph was short-lived. Humayun did not pursue his victory and strengthen his hold on the conquered territory. Bahadur Shah took advantage of this. He marched against Gujarat and recovered the lost territories.

Meanwhile, the situation in Bengal was becoming serious. Sher Khan took advantage of Humayun's difficulties and

strengthened his position. Alarmed by the rising power of Sher Khan, Humayun returned to Bihar. Sher Khan cut off all means of communication with Delhi and Agra and made a surprise attack on Humayun at Chausa near Bihar. In 1539 A. D. Humayun was defeated. Sher Khan became the ruler of Bengal and Bihar, and assumed the title of Sher Shah. He then marched against the Mughals again and defeated them at Kanauj in 1540 A. D. Humayun fled for safety, and Sher Shah became the master of Delhi and Agra.

Humayun lost Hindustan and became a homeless wanderer in the deserts of Marwar and Sind. It was during this period of exile that his son, Akbar, was born at Amarkot on 23 November 1542. Humayun got no help in Sind. In great disappointment he turned towards Kandahar, but his brother Askari, who was ruling there came out with a large force to make him a captive. Humayun, thereupon, fled across the border of Baluchistan and reached the territory of the Shah of Persia. The Shah agreed to help Humayun to recover his empire, provided he embraced the *Shia* faith and also gave up Kandahar to him. Humayun agreed to this. With the help of the Persian forces he defeated his brother, Askari, and took Kandahar, but, instead of giving it to his benefactor, he retained it for himself. He also reconquered Kabul from Kamran. By 1554 A. D. Humayun had become the master of the whole of Afghanistan.

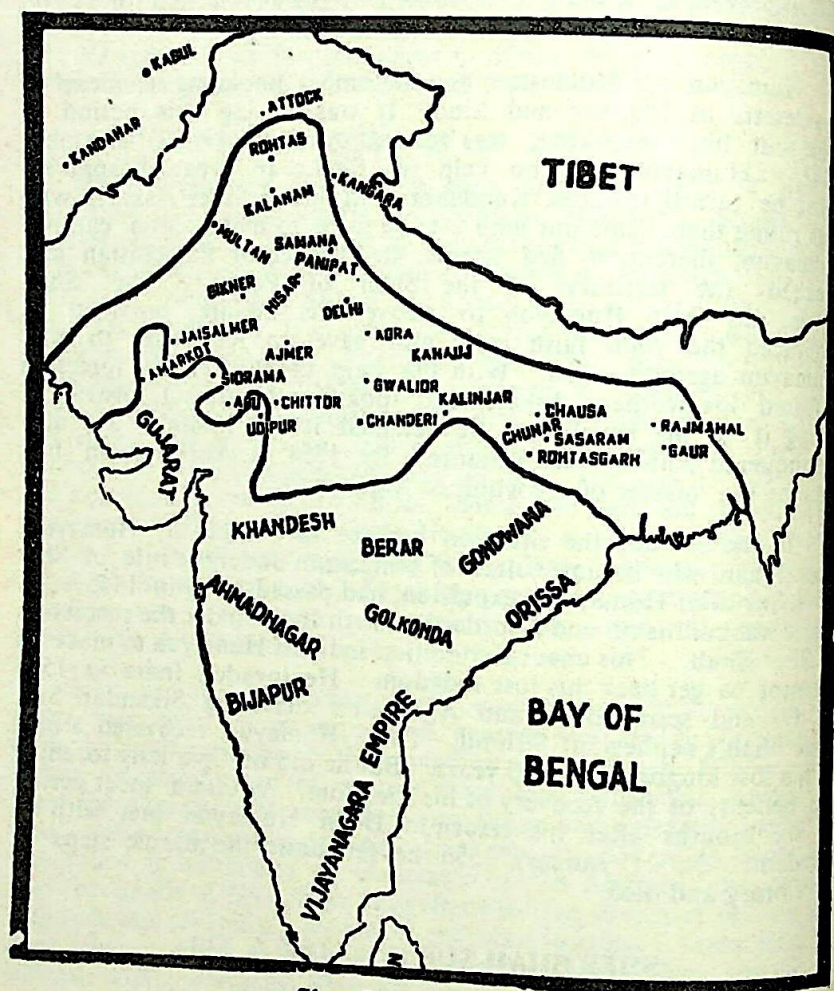
In India, too, the situation became favourable to Humayun. Sher Khan, who became sultan of Hindustan under the title of Sher Shah Sur after Humayun's expulsion, had passed away in 1545 A. D. There was confusion and disorder in North India under the successors of Sher Shah. This chaotic condition induced Humayun to make an attempt to get back his lost kingdom. He invaded India in 1555 A. D. and seized Delhi and Agra after defeating Sikandar Sur, Sher Shah's nephew, at Sirhind. Thus, Humayun recovered a part of his lost kingdom after 15 years. But he did not live long to enjoy the benefits of the recovery of his kingdom. Within a short period of six months after his return to Delhi Humayun met with an accident. On 24 January 1556 he fell down the marble steps of his library and died.

SHER SHAH SUR (1540-1545 A. D.)

Career of Sher Shah

Sher Shah Sur who drove Humayun out of India and re-established the Afghan rule in Hindustan was a striking personality in the history of medieval India. The original name of Sher Shah was Farid. He was born in 1472 A. D. His father Hasan was the Jagirdar of Sasaram in Bihar. Farid's boyhood and early youth were unhappy, as he was ill-treated by his step-mother. In 1494 A. D.

he left Sasaram and went to Jaunpur which was, then a famous centre of Islamic learning. There he studied Arabic and Persian. Then Farid returned to Sasaram and held charge of his father's jagir for more than twenty years (1497-1518 A. D.). During this period he acquired direct experience of administrative and judicial matters.



Sher Shah's Empire

This experience stood him in good stead later on when he became the ruler of North India. The successful administration of the jagir, however, roused the jealousy of his step-mother, and Farid had to leave Sasaram once again. This time he entered the service of the governor of Bihar. It was here that he won the title of Sher Khan by slaying a tiger. But the intrigues of his enemies

compelled Sher Khan to leave Bihar. He then joined the service of Babar in 1527 A. D. His abilities were appreciated by Babar who restored to him his ancestral jagir in 1528 A. D. He soon left Mughal service and returned to Bihar as the guardian of the minor son of the governor of Bihar in 1529 A. D. Within a few years he became the virtual ruler of Bihar. In 1530 A. D. he acquired the strong fortress of Chunar through marriage. He then defeated Muhammed Shah, the ruler of Bengal, and became the independent ruler of both Bihar and Bengal.

Alarmed by the growing strength of Sher Khan, Humayun marched against him and seized the fortress of Chunar. Finding the emperor too strong for an open contest, the clever Afghan offered his submission, and Humayun returned to Agra without crushing his power. Sher Khan strengthened his position and declared himself independent once again. He assumed the royal title of Sher Shah. When Humayun marched against him, Sher Khan defeated him in the battles of Chausa and Kanauj, and compelled him to flee from India.

Sher Shah became the ruler of Hindustan in 1540 A. D. and thus revived the rule of the Afghans. After his accession to the throne, he extended the empire by conquering the Punjab, Multan, Malwa, Sind and a part of Rajputana. Sher Shah's last military exploit was the capture of the strong fort of Kalanjar in Bundelkhand in 1545 A. D. During the siege an accidental explosion of gun powder caused his death on 22 May 1545.

Sher Shah's Administration

Sher Shah was not only a successful general, but also an able administrator. In fact, his achievements as a ruler were more remarkable than his conquests. He introduced original and wise reforms in every branch of administration during his brief reign of five years. Sher Shah's policy was national and non-communal, and it aimed to bring about Hindu-Muslim unity. It was on the foundations laid down by Sher Shah that Akbar's genius raised an imposing imperial structure.

Organization of Government

Sher Shah established a strong centralised system of administration. All civil and military powers were concentrated in the hands of the emperor who personally supervised all departments of administration. Sher Shah had four ministers. However, the ministers were like secretaries and attended to routine work, and the emperor himself decided upon the general policy of the State.

Sher Shah divided the empire into forty-seven units called Sarkars, each of which was again sub-divided into several smaller

units called Parganas. Each pargana consisted of several villages. The Sarkars were administered by two high officers known as Chief *Shiqdar* and Chief *Munsifs*. The former maintained peace and order. The latter was primarily a judge in civil cases. They also supervised the work of the subordinate officers of the parganas. Each pargana had one *Amin*, one *Shiqdar*, one Treasurer, one Hindi writer and one Persian writer. The *Amin* was responsible for the assessment and collection of revenue while the *Shiqdar* was entrusted with the police duty. Each village had a *Muqaddam*, a *Chaudhari*, and a *Patwari*. The *Panchayats* also played an important part in the administration of the villages. Sher Shah devised the system of transferring government officers after every two or three years in order to prevent them from acquiring undue influence at one place.

Land Revenue System

Sher Shah introduced a number of reforms in the land revenue system. Land was surveyed according to a uniform system and the area under cultivation was ascertained for each village. The average produce per *bigha* was determined on the basis of the classification of land into three categories; good, middle and bad. The share of the State was one third of the gross produce. This share could be paid in cash or kind. Sher Shah instructed the revenue officers to be lenient at the time of assessment, but to be strict in the matter of collection. He took special care to protect the cultivators. Sher Shah's land revenue system worked so efficiently that it was later on adopted by Akbar, and was continued throughout the Mughal period.

Justice and Police

The judicial system was well organized. The Chief *Qazi* was the head of the judicial department. There was a *Qazi* in every Sarkar and an *Amin* in every pargana to decide cases. Sher Shah heard appeals against the subordinate courts in his own court. He was very strict and impartial in the administration of justice. The guilty person could not escape punishment because of high birth or rank. Very severe punishments were given to the criminals. As a result life and property became safe under Sher Shah. There was no separate police establishment. The Chief *Shiqdar* and the *Shiqdars* had to maintain peace and order within their respective jurisdiction. One innovation introduced by Sher Shah was the principle of local responsibility. The *Muqaddam* or village headman was made responsible for the crime in his village and if he failed to trace the offender, he was liable to make good the loss due to the crime or robbery.

Army

Sher Shah knew the importance of a strong and efficient army and maintained a large standing army consisting of 1,50,000 cavalry.

25,000 infantry, 5000 war elephants and an efficient artillery. The emperor himself recruited the soldiers and fixed their salaries. He introduced the practice of branding horses and maintaining descriptive rolls of the soldiers in order to avoid malpractices in the army. He enforced strict discipline in the army and meted out severe punishment to the offender. Most of Sher Shah's soldiers were Afghans or Pathans, but Hindus were also given high positions in the army.

Currency and Tariff

Sher Shah introduced currency and tariff reforms in order to improve the general economic condition of the empire. Hitherto, coins issued by all the previous sultans were allowed to circulate, and there was no fixed ratio between the coins of different metals. Sher Shah abolished all the old and mixed metal currency. He issued new gold, silver and copper coins and fixed the rates relative to each other. The silver rupee of Sher Shah formed the basis of the rupee coins of the Mughals and those of the East India Company until 1835 A. D. For the promotion of trade and commerce, various customs duties which were levied at many places, were abolished. The merchants had now to pay customs duty at two places, one at the frontiers of the empire and the other at the place where the goods were sold. The roads constructed by him also fostered trade and commerce.

Transport and Communication

Sher Shah also brought about many reforms in the means of transport and communication. A number of roads were built. Trees were planted on both sides of the roads and *Sarais* (rest houses) were built for the benefit of travellers. Most famous of the roads constructed by Sher Shah was the Grand Trunk Road which ran from Sonargoan in Bengal to Peshawar. Sher Shah also introduced a regular postal system. At every *Sarai* two horsemen were always kept ready to receive the mail and carry it to the next *Sarai*.

Patronage of Arts

Sher Shah was a patron of arts and letters. He liberally endowed scholars with grants. He patronised architecture also. The construction of Purana Qila in Delhi is attributed to him. Sher Shah's own mausoleum at Sasaram is the best specimen of his architecture and has been described as "one of the best designed and most beautiful buildings in India".

Religious Policy

Although an orthodox *Sunni* Muslim, Sher Shah was well disposed towards other sects and religions. The *Jiziya* was not

abolished, but Hindus were treated with justice and toleration. A large section of his infantry was composed of Hindus. He had a trusted Hindu general named Brahmajit Gaur.

An Estimate of Sher Shah

Sher Shah deserves a high place in Indian history. From a humble beginning he worked his way up to be one of the greatest rulers known to Indian history. He knew how to conquer as well as to organise his conquests. The many salutary reforms which he introduced and his policy of religious toleration bear testimony to his statesmanship. His system of land revenue, his administrative reforms and his policy of religious toleration prepared the ground for Akbar's glorious work. He started an era of liberal Islam which lasted till the reign of Aurangzeb.

The Successors of Sher Shah Sur

The Afghan rule revived by Sher Shah did not survive him long. After the death of Sher Shah in 1545 A. D., his son Jalal Khan succeeded him under the title of Islam Shah. He was a capable ruler and kept most of his father's kingdom intact. Islam Shah was succeeded by his minor son Firuz who was immediately murdered by Mubariz Khan, a nephew of Sher Shah. Mubariz ascended his throne with the title of Muhammed Adil Shah (1554-1556 A. D.) He was a worthless ruler and left the affairs of the kingdom in the hands of Hemu, his Hindu chief minister. As Hemu desired to seize the throne for himself, he did nothing to prevent rapid disintegration of the empire under Adil Shah. There were revolts in various parts of the empire. Sher Shah's nephew Sikandar Sur declared himself independent in the Punjab. Humayun, who had in the meantime recovered Kabul, took advantage of the situation and invaded India in 1555 A. D. He defeated Sikandar Sur and occupied Lahore. Then he marched to Delhi and occupied it. Thus he re-established Mughal rule in India in 1555 A. D. when the Sur dynasty came to an end.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Sketch briefly the career and conquest of Babar.
2. "By three battles, Babar established his dynasty in India." Examine.
3. Account for the failure of Humayun as a ruler.
4. Sketch the career and achievements of Sher Shah.
5. Describe the administrative system under Sher Shah.

Short-answer Type

1. Describe the condition of North India in 1526 A. D.
2. Give an account of the early life of Babar.
3. Give an account of the First Battle of Panipat and point out its importance.
4. What were the difficulties Humayun had to face on his accession to the throne?
5. How did Sher Shah become an independent ruler of Bihar and Bengal?
6. What were the land revenue reforms introduced by Sher Shah?
7. How did Sher Shah succeed in establishing perfect security of life and property in his empire?

Objective Type**A. Name the following:**

- (a) The sultan of Delhi on the eve of the Mughal conquest.
- (b) The ancestral kingdom of Babar.
- (c) The three brothers of Humayun.
- (d) The father of Sher Shah.
- (e) The fort captured by Sher Shah as a result of his last military exploit.
- (f) The successor of Sher Shah.

B. Match the following:

A	B
1. Rana Sanga	The Punjab
2. Timur	Sasaram
3. Sher Khan	Kabul
4. Farid	The Afghan governor of the Punjab.
5. Kamran	Samarkand
6. Sikandar Sur	Mewar
7. Daulat Khan Lodi	Chausa

CHAPTER IX

Extension of the Mughal Empire

AKBAR 1556—1605 (A. D.)

When Humayun died, his son Akbar was camping in the Punjab along with his guardian and tutor Bairam Khan in pursuit of Sikandar Sur. Bairam Khan proclaimed Akbar emperor soon after he heard about Humayun's death, and the young prince enthroned in a garden at Kalanjar on 14 February 1556. This act had no more significance than announcing the claim of Akbar to be the successor of the deceased monarch. Bairam Khan became Akbar's regent, and Akbar was only 13 years old then.

A good deal remained to be done before Akbar could call himself the real sovereign of Hindustan. Akbar was surrounded on all sides by enemies. Sikandar Sur was still very strong and was trying to recover the Punjab. In the north-west, Mirza Muhammad Hakim Akbar's half-brother, governed Kabul almost independently. The Surs were still in occupation of the greater portion of Sher Shah's dominion. Adil Shah Sur was trying to re-establish his authority over the whole of northern India. His ambitious minister Hemu had occupied Agra and Delhi, and declared himself independent under the title of Vikramaditya. The Rajput princes had asserted their independence in Rajputana, Orissa, Malwa, and Gondwana. In the Deccan the Bahmani kingdom had broken up into five independent sultanates, and the Vijayanagar kingdom in the South was still independent. Such was the condition of India when Akbar ascended the throne.

Akbar's immediate task was to put down Hemu. A general of repute, Hemu gathered a large force and marched against Akbar after capturing Agra and Delhi. In the meantime, Bairam Khan marched towards Panipat, and the two armies met on the historic battle-field on 5 November 1556. Hemu was defeated and slain and Akbar entered the city of Delhi in triumph. This battle is known as the Second Battle of Panipat, and is an epoch-making event in the history of India, as it resulted in the re-establishment of the Mughal empire in India.

After this Bairam Khan conquered Ajmer, Gwalior and Jaunpur for Akbar. In 1560 A. D. when Akbar was eighteen years old, he

decided to take up the reins of government in his own hands. He compelled Bairam Khan to proceed to Mecca on a pilgrimage. However, Bairam Khan met with his end in Gujarat at the hands of an enemy. Still, Akbar became entirely his own master only in 1562 A. D. when Maham Anaga, his foster mother died.

Expansion of the Empire

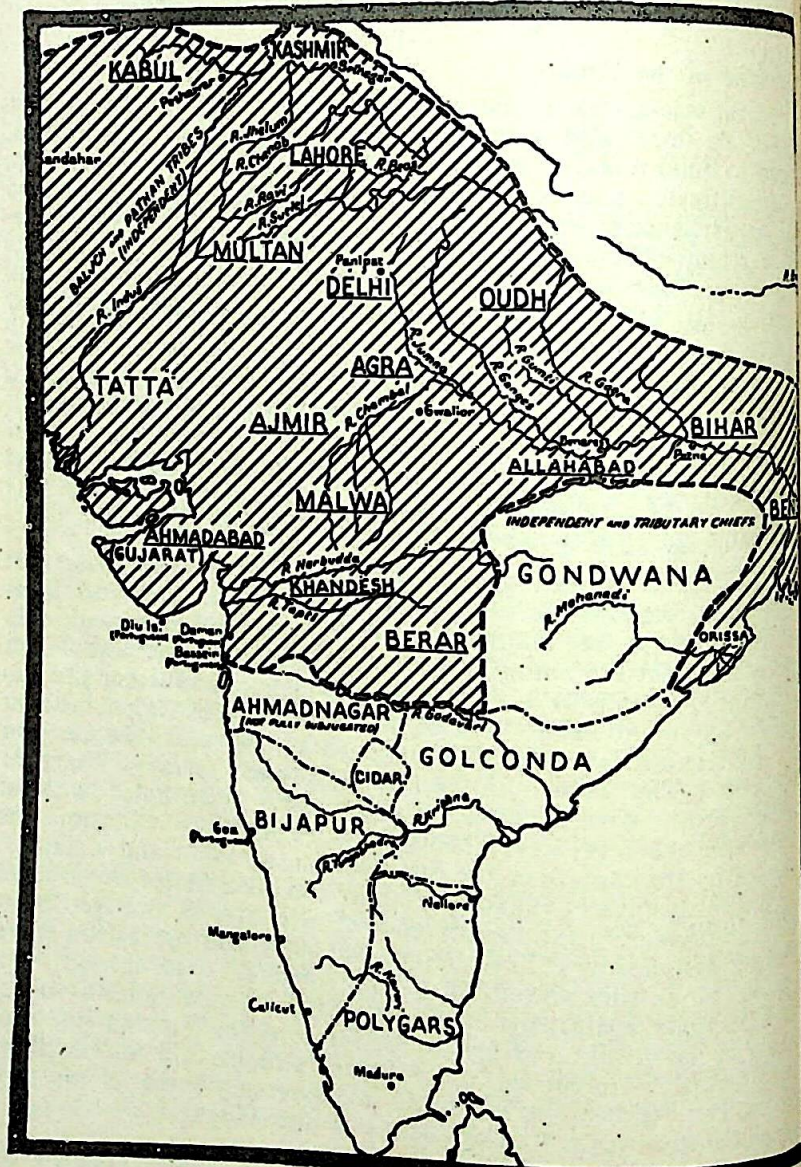
Akbar was a great soldier and general who delighted in warfare. He was an imperialist who, like other great rulers of the world, wished to build a large empire for himself. Most of his wars were prompted by his ambition and love of conquest. He also realised that the existence of numerous kingdoms in northern India had resulted in political chaos. Akbar felt that in order to make his position secure, it was necessary to destroy these kingdoms and unite the whole of Hindustan under his authority. He, therefore, followed a career of conquest for nearly forty years.

The fertile province of Malwa was the first to feel the force of Akbar's arms. It had become independent and its ruler Baz Bahadur assumed the title of sultan. Akbar sent a strong force against Malwa and defeated the sultan and occupied the province in 1564 A. D. Next he captured Gondwana which was then ruled by the remarkable queen Rani Durgavati and annexed it in 1564 A. D.

Next Akbar turned against Mewar. Akbar could never feel himself secure unless the two strong fortresses of Chittor and Ranthambhor in the free Rajput country were taken or reduced. He proceeded against Chittor in 1567 A. D. The Rana Udaya Singh retired into the hills in a most cowardly manner entrusting the defence of the fort to Jaimal, one of his warriors. The Rajputs fought with courage but Jaimal was killed. As a consequence, the garrison lost hope. The women in the fort performed *Johur*. The men rushed forth, sword in hand, to die. They were killed without mercy and the fort was taken (1569). The fall of Chittor was followed by the capture of the forts of Ranthambhor and Kalanjar. The Rajput princes of Bikanir, Jesalmer and other States also offered their submission. But the struggle of Mewar was not yet over. Udaya Singh died in 1572 A. D. and was succeeded by his son Rana Pratapa Singh who vowed to recover Chittor. He carried on a heroic struggle against the Mughals. Rana Pratapa Singh's valour proved of no avail, and he was defeated in the famous battle of Haldi Ghati. He carried on a heroic struggle till his death in 1597 A. D. At last, he succeeded in recovering some of his forts though Chittor was still in the hands of the Mughals.

After the capture of Chittor in 1569 A. D., Akbar turned his attention against the rich province of Gujarat which was an important centre of trade. He annexed Gujarat to the Mughal empire in 1572 A. D. The next step in the expansion of the empire was the

subjugation of Bengal, which was then ruled by one Daud Khan. When Daud Khan declared himself independent, Akbar defeated him in 1576 A.D. and annexed Bengal to the Mughal empire. Kabul



The Subahs of Akbar's Empire

where Akbar's half brother, Muhammad Hakim was viceroy, was the next target of Akbar's attack. When Hakim invaded the Punjab

1580, Akbar marched against him and compelled him to acknowledge his suzerainty. Then Kabul was formally annexed to the empire when Hakim died in 1586 A. D. Kashmir was conquered in 1586 A. D. and Multan and Sind were annexed to the empire in 1591 A. D. The conquest of Baluchistan and Kandahar in 1595 A. D. completed the chain of defence on the north-west frontier. The eastern frontier was similarly strengthened by the annexation of Orissa in 1592 A. D. These conquests made Akbar the undisputed master of northern India and his empire extended from the Himalayas to the Narmada.

Akbar then turned his attention to the Deccan, which, after the collapse of the Bahmani kingdom, was split up into five sultanates: Khandesh, Ahmadnagar, Bijapur, Golconda and, Bidar. Akbar sent embassies to all the Leccan sultanates demanding their submission. Only Khandesh made a show of submission. The other kingdoms refused to yield. Akbar therefore decided upon war. The kingdom of Ahmadnagar was the first to be attacked. The kingdom was heroically defended by Chand Bibi, the regent-queen of Ahmadnagar. She repulsed the Mughals, but had to cede Berar to the emperor in 1596 A.D. But war was renewed in 1599 A.D. and Akbar occupied a portion of the Ahmadnagar kingdom. In 1601 Akbar subdued the ruler of Khandesh and annexed his kingdom to the Mughal empire. The territories conquered in the Deccan were constituted into three subahs: Berar, Ahmadnagar and Khar

Akbar's empire now included the whole of northern India, the Afghan regions in the north-west to Assam in the east, Kashmir in the north to Bijapur and Golconda in the south. At the time of the emperor's death the empire consisted of 15 Subas, including Kashmir and Kandahar; (2) Lahore; (3) Sind; (4) Delhi; (5) Agra; (6) Oudh; (7) Ajmer; (8) Malwa; (9) Allahabad; (10) Bengal including Bihar; (11) Khandesh; (12) Berar; and (13) Gujarat.

Mughal Administration under Akbar

Akbar was not only a great conqueror and administrator. He realized that the empire could be maintained only by promoting their general welfare. He introduced many useful reforms and improvements in the administration in the territories ruled by the great administrative genius.

Central Government

The emperor was the government. He enjoyed, however, a consultative, political, and administrative role.

subordinate secretaries who carried out the royal will, and generally assisted him in the administration of the country.

The Mansabdari System

Akbar introduced a graded system of bureaucracy. The system known as the *Mansabdari* system was essentially military in character. The entire official class was grouped into 33 grades of *Mansabs* or holders of *Mansabs*. There were *Mansabdars* of ten horses to a thousand horses—the last being an honour reserved for members of the royal family. The word *Mansab* means rank or office, and denoted the rank, dignity and office of the *Mansabdar*. A *Mansabdar* was not required to maintain the full number of troops indicated by his rank. There was no distinction between a civil and a military officer. Every Mughal officer was a *Mansabdar*, and he had to perform both civil and military functions. The tenure of office and the conditions of service were fixed by the emperor himself. The lesser *Mansabdars* drew their pay direct from the Imperial Treasury and had to present their horse-men and horses for periodical inspections. In order to prevent fraud, the horses were branded and the muster-rolls of the horse men were maintained. The higher *Mansabdars* were granted provinces (*Subahs*) and jagirs, out of the revenue of which they had to maintain the required number of horse-men. The system worked well under Akbar, but deteriorated under his successors as the nobles quarrelled among themselves for high *Mansabs* or ranks.

The Organisation of the Army

The emperor's army consisted of three parts: (1) the troops supplied by the chiefs who were bound to furnish military aid to their suzerain; (2) the contingents of the *Mansabdars*; and (3) the standing army of the emperor, directly paid by the emperor and forming only a very small fraction of the total force. The chief branches of the imperial army were the infantry, the artillery, the cavalry, the elephants and the navy. As the soldiers were recruited and paid by the *Mansabdars*, their loyalty and attachment were to the immediate masters rather than to the emperor. This was a source of serious danger to the empire.

Provincial Government

Akbar divided the empire into 15 *Subahs* or provinces. Each *Subah* was under a *Subahdar* and the government of the *Subah* was organized on the model of the central government. The *Subahdar* was the supreme military and civil authority in the province and was assisted by a number of officers. Each province was divided into several districts or *Sarkars*. They were governed by *Faujdar*s who were deputies of the *Subahdar* of the province. The *Sarkars* were further subdivided into *Parganas* each under a *Chaudhari*. The

were many villages and towns in a *Pargana*. In a town the *Kotwal* or Inspector of Police was given over-all charge of administration. The *Panchayats* played an important role in the administration of the villages.

Land Revenue Organization

Akbar paid special attention to the land revenue administration. He improved upon Sher Shah's system with the help of his finance minister, Raja Todar Mal. The holdings were measured accurately, and the lands were classified on the basis of the fertility of the soil and the continuity of cultivation. Then the revenue was fixed. Full land revenue was demanded only from the actually cultivated areas. The ryots could pay the revenue either in cash or kind. They paid the revenue to the government without the intervention of any middleman, and the settlement was called the *Ryotwari* system. In times of famine, drought or some other unforeseen calamity, remission of land revenue was granted. In the beginning, the land revenue was assessed annually, but later on, it was assessed for ten years. As a result of the reforms introduced by Akbar in the land revenue administration, the lot of the farmers improved and the country became prosperous.

Judicial System

At the head of the judicial organization was the emperor himself. Normally he heard cases on appeal, but he could take up cases of first instance at his pleasure. Capital punishment required the emperor's sanction. Immediately below the emperor, there was the chief *Qazi* who not only heard cases but also appointed provincial, district and city *Qazis* with the approval of the emperor. The *Muftis* assisted the *Qazis* by interpreting Islamic law. In the provinces the *Subahdar* tried cases like the emperor, and revenue cases were heard by the *Dewan*. Village disputes were settled by village *Panchayats*.

Economic and Social Reforms

Akbar promoted trade and commerce by abolishing all duties, which hampered the expansion of trade, and by building a large network of roads, which made inter-provincial movement of goods possible. Akbar reformed the currency system by withdrawing all old and worn-out coins from circulation and issuing new ones. The silver rupee continued as the standard coin, but he brought into circulation a gold coin known as *Mohur*. Akbar also encouraged industries. He introduced carpet manufacturing.

Akbar reformed the postal system also. He established post offices at every ten miles.

Akbar introduced several social reforms also. He prohibited compulsory *sati*, child marriage, and female infanticide. Widow remarriage was permitted. He discouraged animal sacrifices, excessive drinking, and the practice of enslaving the women and children in conquered countries.

Akbar's efforts to establish a National State

Akbar, unlike the sultans, sought to establish a national State in India by extending the same treatment towards both Hindus and Muslims. He secured the support and co-operation of the Hindu population by introducing a series of liberal measures. He abolished all discriminations and inequalities on the basis of religion. He abolished the *Jiziya*, the poll-tax and all forms of taxes imposed on pilgrims. Further, Hindus were appointed to important government posts. Todar Mal, Raja Man Singh, and Birbal were the prominent Hindus who rendered great service to Akbar's government. Akbar granted perfect religious toleration to all communities. He gave liberal encouragement to the study of the sacred books of the Hindus and donations to Hindu temples and institutions. Further, Akbar tried to achieve a social and cultural fusion of the two communities by a policy of matrimonial alliances. The emperor himself married many Rajput princesses and women belonging to other religions. This was with the object of bringing together all the communities into the fold of a national State that Akbar founded the *Din-Ilahi* incorporating the good elements of several religions.

An Estimate of Akbar's Administration

Akbar's administrative system was well organized and modern. But it was a highly centralised one and such a concentration of power in the hands of weak kings later proved ruinous to the State. It was military in character and members of the civil service were primarily military officers. Further, it failed to appeal to popular sentiment because it contained a number of foreign elements. But in spite of its defects, it worked successfully for nearly a century and a half, and was copied by a number of rulers, both Hindu and Muslim, in different parts of the country.

Akbar's Religion

In the beginning, Akbar was a pious *Sunni* Muslim. He observed strictly the prescribed rituals, built mosques and undertook pilgrimages to the tombs of Muslim saints. But gradually, Akbar's religious views began to change due to the influence of his Hindu wives and his friends, Abdul Fazl and Faizi, who were *Sufis*. Further, Akbar himself was a rationalist who would not accept anything on mere authority. He was anxious to know the truth about all religions. So, in 1575 A. D. he built the *Ibadat Khana* at Fatehpur.

Sikri for the purpose of holding religious and philosophical discussions. He soon found that all religions were equally good, though he could not subscribe to any one completely. So, he tried to bring about a synthesis of all religions. In 1579 A. D. Akbar issued what is known as the 'Infallibility Decree.' By this decree the emperor became the head of religion as well as of State. Henceforward he was to be the arbiter of all disputes, and his decision was binding on all, if it was not contrary to the dictates of the Koran.

In 1582 A. D. Akbar formally declared a new faith called *Din-i-Ilahi* or Divine Faith, in order to give a more definite shape to his religious ideals. It contained the essence of all religions. It appears that Akbar's object was to establish a national religion which would enable the Hindus as well as the Muslims to worship God at the same shrine. It was a brotherhood of free thinkers, and attempted to remove all communal barriers and sectarian prejudices. It was thus eminently suited to end communal bitterness, and weld together the different sects into a single nation.

But *Din-i-Ilahi*, in spite of its idealism, was not likely to succeed. It was too philosophical and abstract. Hence, the common people failed to understand and appreciate it. Hence, *Din-i-Ilahi* was adopted by only a few and died with its founder. However, Akbar's dream of making men realise the unity that lies underneath the diverse forms of worship was a noble one. And the principle of universal goodwill and toleration which he proclaimed will ever remain the greatest monument of Akbar's genius and statesmanship.

Last days of Akbar

The last days of the emperor were clouded by misfortunes. Two of his children died before him, and the only surviving son, Prince Salim, proved ungrateful and even hostile. Salim broke into open rebellion and set himself up as an independent ruler at Allahabad. Abul Fazl was murdered at the instigation of Salim. The emperor pardoned him and appointed him heir apparent. But the emperor was unable to bear all these and died broken-hearted in 1605 A. D.

An Estimate of Akbar

Akbar was, undoubtedly, one of the greatest of Indian monarchs. His claim to greatness rests securely on his extraordinary natural gifts and his magnificent achievements.

Akbar was a great general and administrator. At the time of his father's death, his position was no better than that of a military adventurer. But he soon established his authority over the whole of North India and parts of the Deccan. The administrative system set up by him worked successfully for a long time.

Akbar was great statesman and nationalist. His statesmanship is well-reflected in his attitude towards the Hindus and in his efforts to build a national State in India. Akbar's greatness is reflected in his religious beliefs also. He was a rationalist in religion and could see truth in all religions. His *Din-i-Ilahi* which contained the essence of all religions and his tolerance well justify his claim for a place of honour among the benefactors of mankind. The emperor's progressive ideas of social reform and in many respects anticipated the activities of the social reformers of modern times.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Give an account of the conquests of Akbar.
2. Write a note on the Mughal administrative system under Akbar.
3. Describe the social and religious reforms of Akbar.
4. Give an account of Akbar's Rajput policy.
5. Give an estimate of Akbar as a statesman.
6. Estimate the greatness of Akbar.
7. Assess the place of Akbar in Indian history.

Short-answer Type

1. Who was Bairam Khan? Estimate his services to the Mughal empire.
2. What were the difficulties facing Akbar on his accession to the throne?
3. Why and when was the Second Battle of Panipat fought? What is its importance in Indian history?
4. How did Akbar extend his empire in northern India? What was the extent of his empire?
5. What were the reforms introduced by Akbar in the land revenue administration?
6. What was the *Mansabdari* system of Akbar? What were its merits and demerits?
7. Write a brief note on the judicial administration of the Mughals.
8. Bring out the main features of *Din Ilahi*.

9. What were the measures adopted by Akbar to establish a national State in India?

Objective Type

A. *Name the following :*

- (a) Akbar's regent at the time of his accession.
- (b) Akbar's foster mother.
- (c) The queen of Gondwana when Akbar captured it.
- (d) The Rajput warrior who defended the fortress of Chittor against Akbar's invasion.
- (e) The battle in which Rana Pratapa Singh was defeated by the Mughals.
- (f) The territories acquired by Akbar in the Deccan.
- (g) Akbar's finance minister.

B. *Match the following :*

A	B
1 Hemu	Rana Udaya Singh
2 Malwa	Baz Bahadur
3 Mewar	Second Battle of Panipat

Map Question

Indicate on the outline map provided the Subahs of Akbar's empire.

CHAPTER X

Climax of the Mughal Empire

JAHANGIR (1605-1627 A. D.)

Prince Salim, whom Akbar had nominated as his successor, ascended the throne on 24 October 1605 at the age of 36. He assumed the title of Nur-ud-din Jahangir Padshah. He was a warm-hearted, liberal-minded, and cultured gentleman. Although Jahangir exhibited fits of violent temper occasionally, he was kind-hearted and courteous in behaviour. He was intelligent and could understand all the problems of government very well. He was a lover of justice and did not show any distinction between the high and low. He was very liberal in his religious views, and practiced tolerance towards all religions. He was particularly impressed by the Vedantic philosophy and *Sufism*. He was a great lover of literature and was a good scholar in Persian. But he did not possess the administrative ability and statesman-like qualities of Akbar. He was also a lover of ease and comfort. He was guilty of excessive drinking and self-indulgence. These weaknesses of his character neutralised his virtues, and, in course of time, made him unfit to attend to his administrative responsibilities properly.

The reign of Jahangir was, in a real sense, a continuation of the reign of Akbar as Jahangir did not introduce any change in policy. Jahangir began his reign by issuing the "Twelve Ordinances" which provided for the abolition of customs and excise duties, release of prisoners, pardon to traitors, and issue of new coins. This was done in pursuance of Akbar's liberal policies.

Revolt of Prince Khusru

One of the earliest events of the reign of Jahangir was the revolt of Jahangir's eldest son, prince Khusru. Within five months of Jahangir's accession to the throne, Khusru revolted against him. Jahangir marched against the prince, defeated his forces, and captured the prince and his chief followers. The prince and his followers were cruelly put to death. Even the Sikh Guru Arjundev, who had helped the prince, did not escape the emperor's wrath. He was asked to pay a heavy fine of two lakhs of rupees, and when he refused to pay the fine, he was tortured to death. His execution made the Sikhs enemies of the Mughals. Khusru was later on killed by his own brother prince Khurram.

Nur Jahan

The most important event of the life of Jahangir was his marriage with Nur Jahan, the Persian lady, who afterwards acquired enormous influence in the State. Her original name was Mehr-un-Nisa. She was the daughter of Mirza Ghiyas Beg, a native of Tehran, who had come to India in search of employment and found service with Akbar. Gradually Ghiyas Beg rose to a position of importance. In 1594 A. D. when Mehr-un-Nisa was seventeen, she was married to another Persian adventurer, Ali Quli Khan, who earned the title of Sher Afghan by killing a tiger. Sher Afghan was granted a jagir in Bengal. He was soon suspected of treason, and was ordered to be arrested. Qutb-ud-din, the governor of Bengal, who was ordered to arrest him, did his job so badly that Sher Afghan flew into a rage, and in the scuffle that followed, both lost their lives. Mehr-un-Nisa was then brought to Delhi, and in March 1611 Jahangir married her. Jahangir made her chief queen of the harem and conferred upon her the title of Nur Mahal or Light of the Palace. This title was later converted to Nur Jahan or Light of the World. It is said that Jahangir had long been in love with Nur Jahan and that he had caused the death of Sher Afghan. This view, however, has been challenged by some historians. Yet, the circumstances are such that the story cannot be wholly discarded as a pure myth.

From the time of her marriage with the emperor, Nur Jahan governed the empire in all matters. She was a talented woman. Her intelligence enabled her to grasp the most difficult problems of the State. Jahangir left everything to her and busied himself in pleasure. Nur Jahan signed *farmans* jointly with the emperor and her name appeared on coins. She acquired a complete hold over the emperor. As a result, a party grew up around her which, by its selfish policy, disturbed the peace of the empire.

Wars and Conquests

In 1612 A. D. a serious rebellion broke out in Bengal under the leadership of Osman Khan, but it was ruthlessly suppressed.

Akbar had not been able to conquer the whole of Mewar owing to the stiff resistance of Rana Pratapa Singh. Jahangir was naturally anxious to conquer this Rajput kingdom. He sent many expeditions against Mewar, but nothing definite could be achieved. At last in 1654 A. D. prince Khurram (afterwards Shah Jahan) defeated Rana Pratap's son and successor Rana Amar Singh. The Rana accepted the suzerainty of Jahangir who treated the Rana kindly and restored to him all the territories including Chittor which the Mughals had seized from him and his gallant father Rana Pratapa Singh. Thus, as a result of his generous treatment, Jahangir won Rana Amar Singh's friendship. Henceforward, the rulers of Mewar remained loyal to the Mughals till the days of Aurangzeb.

Jahangir continued his father's aggressive policy in the Deccan. The prime minister of the Nizam Shahi kingdom of Ahmadnagar at this time was Malik Ambar, an Abyssinian, who was an administrator of great ability and force of character. He introduced many changes in the administration and, like Todarmal, reformed the revenue system of the State, organized its resources, and secured its stability. He wanted to shake off the yoke of the Mughals and declared independence. Several Mughal commanders were sent against him but without success. At last prince Khurram was sent to lead the campaign, and he compelled Malik Ambar to sue for peace in 1617 A. D. Jahangir was much pleased by the achievements of the prince and conferred upon him the title of Shah Jahan, "The king of the world". But the success was only short-lived. Malik Ambar slowly recovered all the territories surrendered to the Mughals, and Ahmadnagar continued to be a source of anxiety and irritation to the Mughals until the death of Malik Ambar in 1626 A. D.

The Rebellion of Shah Jahan (1623—1625—A. D.)

When Nur Jahan found that Jahangir's health was fast declining, she tried to secure the succession to Shahriyar, her son-in-law and Jahangir's youngest son. Her brother, Asaf Khan, on the other hand, was scheming to make his son-in-law, prince Khurram, as ruler. Just at this time Shah Abbas, king of Persia, captured Kandahar, and Nur Jahan seized this opportunity to send Prince Khurram, on this distant expedition. But the prince was clever enough to scent danger in this and rebelled. He was, however, finally defeated by Mahabat Khan, the commander of the imperial army and was forced to surrender. But Nur Jahan, fearful of the growing influence of Mahabat Khan, offered pardon and peace to Shah Jahan who was allowed to remain in the Deccan.

Rebellion of Mahabat Khan

Nur Jahan was shrewd enough to perceive that Mahabat Khan would spoil her own designs. Hence, she decided to undermine his power and prestige. He was summoned to court to answer charges of misappropriation of public money. Mahabat Khan felt the disgrace and broke out into rebellion. With the help of the Rajputs he captured the emperor who was encamped on the Jhelum on his way to Kabul. Nur Jahan tried to rescue the emperor, but her attempt failed. Then she joined him in captivity. She succeeded in releasing herself and her husband. Mahabat Khan fled to the Deccan and joined Shah Jahan who was once again in open revolt.

A few months after his release from the grip of Mahabat Khan, Jahangir died on 28 October 1627. With the death of Jahangir the public life of Nur Jahan came to a close. She died in 1645 A. D.

Hawkins and Roe

During the reign of Jahangir, two Englishmen, Captain Hawkins and Sir Thomas Roe, came to India bearing letters from James I of England. The former landed at Surat in August 1608 and encountered much opposition from the Portuguese who were jealous of British entrance in Indian waters. Hawkins, however, managed to reach the imperial court and secured valuable trade concessions. But owing to the intrigues of the Portuguese, many of them were withdrawn. Seven years later, Sir Thomas Roe reached the Mughal court as the accredited ambassador of James I of England. He was accompanied by an English clergy man, Edward Terry by name. Roe succeeded in getting numerous trade privileges for his nation. We are indebted to these two gentlemen for the valuable records left by them about the life in the Mughal court.

SHAH JAHAN (1628-1658 A. D.)

Jahangir's death was followed by a brief struggle for succession. Nur Jahan put forward the claims of Shahriyar who proclaimed himself emperor at Lahore. Shah Jahan was in the Deccan at this time. Asaf Khan, the father-in-law of Shah Jahan, tried by every means in his disposal to press his claim. He placed on the throne a son of Khusru, Dawar Baksh, and sent word to Shah Jahan to hasten to the capital. Asaf Khan fought against Shahriyar, and defeated and blinded him. Shah Jahan soon arrived in Agra, deposed Dawar Baksh, and after getting rid of other rivals, ascended the throne on 4 February 1628. In commemoration of this event Shah Jahan distributed presents on a lavish scale and constructed the famous Peacock throne.

Shah Jahan, like his father, was the son of a Rajput princess. He had shown great courage and ability in his father's reign. He was a strong man determined to have his own way in everything.

Rebellions

During the first few years of Shah Jahan's reign, there were rebellions in different parts of the empire. The turbulent Bundela Rajputs of Bundelkhand revolted under the leadership of their valiant chief, Raja Jujhar Singh. The rebellion was quickly suppressed, but Jujhar Singh escaped to the mountains and continued to give trouble to the Mughals until his death in 1634 A. D. Another rebellion was headed by an Afghan noble named Khan Jahan Lodi, a former viceroy of the Deccan. He joined forces with the sultan of Ahmadnagar and gave considerable trouble to the imperial army before he was hunted down and killed in 1631 A. D. Shah Jahan had to face some trouble from the Portuguese who had settled at Hughli with the permission of the former rulers of Bengal. They abused their trade privileges, and indulged in piracy and slave trade. They offered all kinds of temptations to gain

converts to Christianity, and sometimes used force. The emperor resolved to punish them, and ordered Qasim Khan, the governor of Bengal, to proceed against the Portuguese. Qasim Khan laid siege to Hughli. The Portuguese offered resistance, but they were defeated and put to heavy losses in 1632 A. D.

During the years 1631-32 A. D. a severe famine prevailed in Gujarat, Khandesh and the Deccan. The emperor was moved by the sufferings of the people. He provided for free distribution of food to the poor and a large sum of money was granted for other relief measures. The emperor also ordered for a remission of about Rs. 70 lakhs of public revenue.

Death of Mumtaz Mahal

Another tragic event in the reign of Shah Jahan was the death of his favourite wife, Mumtaz Mahal. She died of child-birth in January 1631. Her death affected the emperor deeply. She was at first buried at Burhanpur, and later on the body was removed to Agra. Shah Jahan built an exquisite mausoleum, the Taj Mahal, over the tomb of his late queen. The Taj stands to this day as the finest tribute of a loving husband to a devoted wife.

Shah Jahan and the Deccan States

Shah Jahan followed the aggressive Deccan policy of his predecessors, and spent much of his time and wealth in waging wars against the Deccan sultanates. He thought it was his duty as an orthodox *Sunni* Muslim to destroy the *Shia* kingdoms of the South. He first marched against Ahmadnagar. The Mughals, finding it difficult to reduce Ahmadnagar by open fight, bribed Fateh Khan, the minister of Ahmadnagar, to surrender. Ahmadnagar was annexed in 1633 A. D. Shah Jahan next turned against the kingdoms of Bijapur and Golconda. The emperor required them to acknowledge his suzerainty. Golconda complied with the demand and agreed to pay annual tribute, but Bijapur refused and decided to go to war. The Mughal troops marched into the country and ravaged it. At last in 1636 A. D. the sultan purchased peace by paying a heavy indemnity and agreeing to become a vassal of Delhi. Aurangzeb, the third son of the emperor, was appointed viceroy of the Deccan. The young prince continued the aggressive policy of his father, and attempted to destroy Bijapur and Golconda. The Mughals marched upon Golconda and laid siege to the town. But Aurangzeb's harsh treatment of the sultan of Golconda displeased Shah Jahan who ordered the siege to be raised. Next Aurangzeb invaded Bijapur. Here also, when victory was in sight, the emperor, at the instigation of Dara, who had become jealous of his brother's success, ordered the siege to be abandoned. Thus Aurangzeb's plans for the conquest of the Deccan misfired.

The North—West Frontier Policy

The province of Kandahar in the north-west had come into the possession of the Mughals during the reign of Akbar. The Shah of Persia conquered Kandahar and annexed it to his dominions in 1623. A. D. Shah Jahan started negotiations with Ali Mardan Khan, the Persian governor of Kandahar, to surrender Kandahar to the Mughals. In 1638 A. D. Ali Mardan surrendered Kandahar to the Mughals. Ali Mardan was received with great honour by Shah Jahan and was employed in important civil and military duties. The Shah of Persia attacked Kandahar and captured it in 1648 A. D. Shah Jahan made repeated attempts to recover Kandahar, and sacrificed a large number of lives and huge sums of money without gaining any territory.

The Central Asian Policy

Central Asia was the ancestral home-land of the Mughals. Shah Jahan desired to recover the hilly provinces of Badakshan and Balk in Central Asia and thereby acquire Samarkhand itself. He, therefore, despatched to Central Asia a huge force in 1645 A. D. under Prince Murad and Ali Mardan Khan. They conquered these two provinces in 1646 A. D. Aurangzeb was transferred from Deccan to these frontier areas as viceroy in 1647 A. D.. But the Uzbeks offered such a strong resistance that all his efforts ended in failure, and he was forced to evacuate Balkh.

Administration

The general frame work of administration was the same as in Akbar's days. The empire was divided in to 22 subahs. The revenue of the Mughal empire under Shah Jahan was greater than that of his predecessors. It was this which enabled him to build edifices of unequalled beauty at Agra and Delhi. The government of Shah Jahan was supported by a huge army. Shah Jahan was famous for his impartiality in the administration of justice. He heard appeals and himself decided all important cases.

The revenue system had undergone some changes under Shah Jahan. The farming system came into vogue. Nearly seven-tenths of the empire was farmed out. The holders of farms paid to the government a fixed sum out of the revenue which they collected from their peasants. The big Mansabdars also farmed out their jagirs. Shah Jahan was less tolerant in religion than his predecessors. He ordered the demolition of temples and encouraged conversions by offering rewards and services.

Patronage of Art and Architecture

Shah Jahan was a great patron of art and architecture. His reign marked the Golden Age of Mughal art and architecture. He constructed a number of buildings in different parts of the empire. The most remarkable of Shah Jahan's buildings was the Taj Mahal. It has been variously described as "a dream in marble", "a romance in stone", and so on. Shah Jahan also built the Moti Masjid at Agra the Red Fort and the Juma Masjid at Delhi, Jahangir's tomb at Lahore and the splendid city of Shahjahanabad near Delhi. The reign of Shah Jahan marked the most dazzling age of Mughal painting and jewellery making. The Peacock throne made in 1634 was a "Jewelled phantasy...glittering with the emeralds and rubies". Among the emperor's collection of jewels was the Kohinoor. Shah Jahan employed many painters at his court and his eldest son Dara was a patron of the pictorial art. Shah Jahan was himself a good musician, and gave great encouragement to instrumental and vocal music.

It should, however, be stated that beneath the surface of outward splendour and apparent prosperity, there was the tragic situation of heavy taxation, and suffering and oppression that was the lot of the common people. Shah Jahan's reign also marked the abandonment of the wise policy of religious toleration begun by Akbar. Hindu temples in the empire, especially those at Banaras, were destroyed. Christians too did not escape persecution.

War of Succession

In September 1657, Shah Jahan fell ill, and that was the signal for the out-break of a war among the four sons of the emperor.

Dara Shukoh was the eldest and favourite son of Shah Jahan. He was viceroy of the Punjab and north-western provinces. He was able and clever, but violent in temper, arrogant in manners and worst of all, self-willed. In religion, he was not a strict Muslim. He was a mystic who loved the *Upanishads*. The second son of Shah Jahan was Shuja, viceroy of Bengal. He was sluggish and inert, and utterly incapable of quick action. He was a *Shiah* by religion. The third son Aurangzeb was calm and cool-headed, crafty and cunning. He easily towered above all his brothers in point of ability. The last and fourth son of Shah Jahan was Murad, a drunkard, dissolute, and brainless man.

Dara was living with Shah Jahan when he fell ill. Shuja first got crowned at Bengal, and his brother Murad proclaimed himself emperor at Ahmadabad. Aurangzeb, after studying the situation carefully, entered into a treaty with the thoughtless Murad promising to divide the empire with him. He also let him know that his real intention was to prevent the infidel Dara from ascending the throne. The unsuspecting Murad believed him and united his forces

with his. The three princes moved towards the capital with their forces. Shah Jahan, who had somewhat improved in health, sent a force against Shuja who was defeated at Banaras. The imperial forces met the combined armies of Aurangzeb and Murad at Dharmat near Ujjain on 15 April 1658. In the battle that followed the imperial forces were utterly routed. The victorious princes advanced further until they were attacked by Dara at Samurgarh on 29 May 1658. Dara was defeated. The victorious princes then marched against Agra, entered the city and forced Shah Jahan to surrender the fort by cutting off its supply of water from the Yamuna.

Aurangzeb and Murad now started in pursuit of Dara, who had fled towards Delhi. On their way Aurangzeb craftily made Murad a prisoner and sent him first to Delhi and then to Gwalior, where he was executed on a false charge of murder. Shortly after arresting Murad, Aurangzeb had himself crowned as emperor in July 1658.

Aurangzeb then turned his attention against Dara and Shuja. Dara was hunted through Delhi and Lahore as far as Multan by Aurangzeb. He then marched against Shuja and defeated him at Khajwah on 5 January 1659. The prince was forced to flee to Arakan frontier. Nothing more was heard of Shuja and it was believed that he and his family were murdered by the Arakanese. In the meantime Dara sought shelter under a faithless Afghan chief, who betrayed him to his pursuers. Dara was brought to Delhi and was brutally murdered. The fate of Sulaiman Shukoh, son of Dara Shukoh, was equally pathetic. He was imprisoned by Aurangzeb, who killed him by slow poisoning. Aurangzeb thus cleared the field of all his rivals and became the master of Hindustan.

Death of Shah Jahan

Shah Jahan survived his favourite son for nearly seven years. Throughout this period he languished in prison, though attended by Jahanara, his daughter. He died on 22 January 1662. Aurangzeb did not care to see his dying father, nor did he make any decent arrangement for his funeral.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Examine the part played by Jahangir and Nur Jahan in Mughal history.
2. Assess the character and achievements of Jahangir.
3. Describe the various conquests and rebellions that took place during the reign of Shah Jahan.

4. How was Shah Jahan's period 'a Golden Age' in Mughal history?

5. Briefly describe the character and achievements of Shah Jahan.

Short-answer Type

1. Point out the significance of the revolt of prince Khusru.
2. What was Nur Jahan's influence on Jahangir and the Mughal empire?
3. Who were the foreigners who visited India during the reign of Jahangir? Point out the significance of their visits.
4. Give a brief account of Shah Jahan's wars in the Deccan.
5. Point out the significance of the north-west frontier policy of Shah Jahan.
6. How did Aurangzeb obtain the throne even during the life time of his father, Shah Jahan?

Objective Type

A. Name the following :

- (a) The prince whom Akbar had nominated as his successor.
- (b) The Sikh Guru who helped prince Khusru in his revolt against his father.
- (c) The father of Nur Jahan.
- (d) The prime minister of Ahmadnagar when Jahangir sent Prince Khurram to invade that country.
- (e) The leader of the Bundela Rajputs when they rebelled against Shah Jahan.
- (f) The Persian governor of Kandahar who surrendered the territory to Shah Jahan.
- (g) The son of Shah Jahan who loved the *Upanishads*.

B. Match the following :

- A
1. Jahangir
 2. Sher Afghan
 3. Rana Amar Singh
 4. Ahmadnagar
 5. Ali Mardan Khan

- B
- Mewar
 - Kandahar.
 - The 'Twelve Ordinances'
 - Mehr-un-Nisa
 - Fateh Khan

CHAPTER XI

The Age of Aurangazeb

Aurangazeb was the last of the Great Mughals. He was born in 1618 A. D. His long reign began in 1658 A. D., although his formal coronation took place later in June 1659. When he ascended the throne, he was already a man of wide experience. He had served as viceroy of the Deccan under Shah Jahan.

Aurangazeb was a stern puritan *Sunni* Muslim. He faithfully adhered to all the principles of his religion. He was very simple in his dress, food and other personal habits. He cherished a high ideal of kingship which he followed throughout his life without any thought of the consequences. He was a born soldier with a rare capacity for organization and discipline. In diplomacy, and state craft he had few equals. He was a widely read and accurate scholar. He was well-versed in Persian poetry. He was a master of Arabic; he knew the Koran by heart, and was well-up in Islamic law and theology. He never used public money for his personal and private expenses. He made skull caps to earn his daily bread, and looked upon the treasury of the State as a sacred trust.

Aurangazeb would have been an ideal king in a Muslim country. But the bulk of his subjects in Hindustan were Hindu; whom he regarded as heretics. He lacked imagination and sympathy without which it was impossible to govern a large empire. He failed to take account of the forces that were working around him. Further, he had no confidence in others, and this habit of suspicion made it impossible for him to secure the loyalty and gratitude of his kinsmen and officers. "So", writes Khwafi Khan, "every plan and project that he formed came to little good; and every enterprise which he undertook was long in execution and failed in its object".

Religious Policy

Aurangazeb owed his succession to his championship of orthodox Islam. Hence, to please his orthodox Muslim supporters and to satisfy his own conscience, he attempted to establish an ideal Islamic State. Soon after his coronation he issued a series of ordinances in order to please his followers and to force the Muslims to model their life according to the injunctions of the Koran. He prohibited the stamping of the *Kulima* on the coins and the observance of a number of Hindu and Persian festivals. As a stern

puritan *Sunni* he forbade all kinds of amusements in the court like music, dancing, birthday and coronation festivals, etc. He appointed Censors of Public Morals to enforce obedience to the Holy Law, to check prostitution, drinking and other vices, and to suppress the spread of heretical teachings.

Aurangzeb also showed an attitude of open hostility and intolerance towards the *Shias* and Hindus. In 1659 A. D. he issued an order prohibiting the construction of new temples and in 1669 A. D. he prevented the repair of old ones. A few years later, 1669 A. D., a number of temples were destroyed. Among the temples which were destroyed were some of the great shrines such as the second temple of Somanath in Gujarat, the Viswanath temple in Banaras, and the Keshava Rai temple of Mathura. All signs of protest were ruthlessly put down. At Ambar in the loyal State of Jaipur alone 66 temples were destroyed. Hindu festivals and functions were banned. The emperor issued a series of regulations in order to put economic pressure on the Hindus. In 1665 A. D. the customs duty was fixed at 2½ p. c. in the case of Muslim traders and 5 p. c. for their Hindu competitors. In 1667 A. D. the customs duty was abolished altogether in the case of Muslim traders, but in the case of Hindus it was retained at the old rate. In 1671 A. D. an ordinance was issued requiring that the revenue collectors of the crown lands must be Muslims. As a result, the Hindus found their prospects of employment shrinking. Converts to Islam were offered various privileges such as liberation from prison, appointment in the public service, and succession to disputed property. In 1679 A. D. the *Jiziyah* was reimposed. In 1695 A. D. all Hindus, with the exception of the Rajputs, were forbidden to ride palanquins, elephants or horses, or to carry arms.

This religious intolerance of Aurangzeb produced wide spread opposition among the Hindus. The first serious Hindu rebellion took place in the Mathura region in 1669 A. D. The rebels were Jats. The rebellion was suppressed. In 1672 A. D. the Satnamis, a commercial and agricultural Hindu sect inhabiting the district of Narnol, rebelled. A large Mughal force was sent to crush the rebellion. In a fierce battle 2000 Satnamis fell in the field, and many others were killed in the pursuit. He came into conflict with the Sikhs also. Tegh Bahadur, the ninth *Guru* of the Sikhs, was infuriated by the persecution to which Aurangzeb subjected the Sikhs. The *Guru* was seized and taken to Delhi. In December 1675 Tegh Bahadur was beheaded by an order of the emperor. This made the Sikhs bitter enemies of the Mughals. The repressive policy of Aurangzeb provoked formidable revolts by the Rajputs and Mahrattas. Aurangzeb persecuted not only Hindus, but also the *Shias*. He waged wars that Aurangzeb waged against Bijapur and Golconda. His religious character also Aurangzeb wanted to destroy the sultanates because their sultans belonged to the *Shia* sect.

Wars of Aurangzeb

Aurangzeb's reign saw a long series of wars, first in North India and then in the Deccan.

Wars in North India

Aurangzeb was engaged in his campaigns in North India during the first half of his reign covering a period of 23 years (1658-1681 A. D.). During this period he dealt with the affairs of the South through his generals.

War in North Eastern India

Aurangzeb appointed Mir Jumla as governor of Bengal soon after he ascended throne. By that time the rulers of Cooch-Bihar and Assam were penetrating into the Mughal territory and occupied Kamrup. Mir Jumla was instructed to conquer Assam. He first occupied the capital of Cooch-Bihar without any resistance. In 1662 A. D. Mir Jumla defeated the Ahoms of Assam and occupied their capital Garhgaon. Later, however, the Ahoms took the offensive and recovered their lost territories.

Mir Jumla lost his life in the campaign against Assam. Shaista Khan was appointed in his place. He found the Portuguese pirates making inroads into East Bengal. He captured the island of Sondip in the Bay of Bengal from the Portuguese and put down piracy. He also took Chittagong from the king of Arakan in 1666 A. D.

War in North-West India

The Pathan tribes inhabiting the north-west frontier were frequently invading and plundering the Indian villages since the days of Akbar. Akbar had checked and chastised them, but they were far from being pacified. When the central government became weak towards the close of Shah Jahan's reign, these frontier tribes again raised their heads, and the troubles they created took a serious turn at the accession of Aurangzeb. In 1667 A. D. the Yusufzais crossed the Indus, attacked the Mughal out-posts and plundered the territories. They were defeated after a stubborn fight. More serious was the rising of the Afridis and the Khatakas which broke out in 1672 A. D. When Aurangzeb saw that it was useless to continue the war, he paid them subsidies and adopted the policy of divide and rule. The tribes were quieted, but the war proved a costly one. It had mainly two results. First Aurangzeb could not employ the Afghans to crush the Rajput rebellion, and secondly, Shivaji, the Mahratta leader, greatly benefitted by the absence of the Mughal troops in the North.

War in Rajputana

Aurangzeb's greatest North Indian war was waged against the Rajputs of Marwar. In 1678 A. D. Jaswant Singh, the ruler of Marwar, died. As he left no son to succeed him, the emperor placed Marwar under direct Mughal control although a relative of the deceased ruler was recognized as its independent ruler. Two posthumous sons of Jaswant Singh were born in February 1679 A.D. One of them died in a few weeks. The other, Ajit Singh, survived. Aurangzeb not only refused to recognize his claim to succession but ordered that he should be brought up in the Mughal harem. The emperor promised that he would give him back his kingdom when he came of age. The Rajputs became suspicious and resolved to die to a man to save their country. Their great leader, Durgadas, managed to escape with the infant prince of Marwar and unfurled the flag of rebellion. Aurangzeb ordered an invasion of Marwar. Marwar was defeated and annexed to the Mughal empire. Jodpur and all the great towns in the plains were pillaged. The temples were pulled down and mosques were erected in their places.

This aggressive annexation of Marwar roused the Rana of Mewar to action, and war broke out between Aurangzeb and the Rana. This war lasted for a long time and both sides lost heavily. Finally a treaty was concluded in 1681 A. D. between the Mughals and Mewar.

But in Marwar Durgadas carried on the war for 30 years until 1709 A. D. when Aurangzeb's successor, Bahadur Shah, recognized the claim of Ajit Singh to the throne of Marwar.

The Rajput war drained the resources of Aurangzeb, and lowered his prestige. The Rajputs had no longer any sympathy for the Mughal empire, and Aurangzeb had to fight in the Deccan alone.

The Wars in the Deccan

In the second half of his reign, Aurangzeb spent all his energy in the Deccan in his great effort to conquer the sultanates of Bijapur and Golconda and the newly emerged kingdom of the Mahrattas. 1681 A. D. Aurangzeb went to the South. From 1681 to his death in 1707 A. D. he and his court remained in the Deccan.

Conquest of Bijapur and Golconda

Among the Muslim sultanates of the Deccan, only Bijapur and Golconda remained to be conquered. As a fanatical *Sunni* Muslim, Aurangzeb hated the *Shia* rulers of Bijapur and Golconda, and wanted to destroy them. He also suspected them to be in alliance with the Mahrattas. So he sent armies against them from time to time. When all these failed, Aurangzeb marched to the Deccan to conduct the campaigns personally against the sultans.

Aurangzeb first tried to terrify and demoralise the Mahrattas by ravaging their territory. The Mughal forces captured a few fortresses, but the campaign was, on the whole, disastrous. Meanwhile, Prince Azam who had been sent by Aurangzeb against Bijapur began the siege of the city early in 1685 A. D. But the city could not be forced to surrender even after a year's siege. Now Aurangzeb himself marched against the city. He conducted the war with vigour and forced the sultan to surrender. Thus ended the Adil Shahi dynasty which had ruled Bijapur in great glory for about two centuries.

Aurangzeb then turned his attention against Golconda. The sultan of Golconda ably defended the fortress. But finally Aurangzeb heavily bribed the supporters of the sultan, and the city was betrayed. The kingdom was annexed, and the Kutb Shahi dynasty thus came to an end.

Mahratta Wars

During the reign of Aurangzeb the Mahrattas emerged out as a powerful nation under Shivaji. They offered a stubborn resistance to the Mughals. Aurangzeb sent against Shivaji, Shayista Khan, one of his best generals. Shivaji attacked the Mughal commander at Poona and plundered his camp. He plundered the city of Surat and acquired a vast sum of money. Aurangzeb sent Raja Jai Singh and prince Muazzam to deal with Shivaji. Shivaji signed the Treaty of Purandhar and visited the Mughal court at Agra where he was put into prison. He escaped from prison, returned to Maharashtra and renewed the hostilities. After the death of Shivaji in 1680 A. D., the war was carried on by Shivaji's son and successor Sambhaji. Aurangzeb captured and executed him in 1689 A. D. Sambhaji's son, Sahu, was imprisoned in the Agra fort. But the Mahratta spirit was not crushed. Raja Ram, another son of Shivaji, who acted as regent, carried on the war against the Mughals. When Raja Ram died in 1700 A. D. his widow, Tara Bai, continued the war. Under her leadership the Mahrattas fought with great courage and vigour. Aurangzeb miserably failed in suppressing and subduing the Mahrattas.

Results of the Deccan Wars

The Deccan policy of Aurangzeb was both a military failure and a political miscalculation. It was a military failure because it failed to achieve its purpose. In spite of a long series of wars Aurangzeb failed to subdue the Mahrattas. It was a political blunder because the destruction of the sultanates of Bijapur and Golconda made the path of Mahratta expansion smooth. Aurangzeb failed to understand that Bijapur and Golconda would have stood as a bulwark against the growing Mahratta expansion in

subordinate alliance with the Mughal empire. Further, the annexation of the sultanates made the Mughal empire so large that it could not be effectively controlled from one central point. The wars in the Deccan shattered the military strength and economic stability of the Mughal empire. Aurangzeb lost heavily in men and materials. The loss of resources was sought to be compensated by increase in taxes. The peasants, unable to bear the burden of taxes, fled to jungles. The continued absence of the emperor from the North to conduct the Deccan operations weakened the administration.

Last Days of Aurangzeb

The costly, but unsuccessful, wars waged by Aurangzeb against the Mahrattas not only ruined the finances of the empire, it ruined the emperor himself. Napoleon said: "It was Spanish ulcer which ruined me." The Deccan ulcer ruined Aurangzeb. "The Deccan was the grave of his reputation as well as of his body." When the Mahrattas carried on a vigorous defensive war against the Mughals, and took fort after fort, Aurangzeb, in despair retreated to Ahmadnagar where he died in February 1707.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Describe the military exploits of Aurangzeb and explain their results.
2. Give an account of the Deccan policy of Aurangzeb.
3. Trace briefly Aurangzeb's struggle with the Mahrattas and account for his failure to subdue them.
4. Describe the religious policy of Aurangzeb. To what extent did it contribute to the downfall of the Mughal empire?
5. How far Aurangzeb was responsible for the fall of the Mughal empire?

Short-answer Type

1. Describe briefly the wars waged by Aurangzeb in north-east India and north-west India and point out their results.
2. Give an account of the wars waged by Aurangzeb in Rajputana.

Objective Type**A. Name the following :**

- (a) Three temples destroyed by Aurangazeb.
- (b) The Sikh *Guru* executed by Aurangazeb.
- (c) Governor of Bengal instructed by Aurangazeb to conquer Assam.
- (d) The great hero of Marwar who unfurled the flag of rebellion against Aurangazeb.
- (e) The Mughal general sent by Aurangazeb to subdue Shivaji.
- (f) The Rajput general sent by Aurangazeb to deal with Shivaji.

B. Match the following :

- | | |
|---------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. Aurangazeb | Governor of Bengal |
| 2. Mir Jumla | Marwar |
| 3. Ajit Singh | Championship of orthodox
Islam |

CHAPTER XII

Decline of the Mughal Empire

The death of Aurangzeb was followed by a war of succession among his three sons, Prince Muazzam known as Shah Alam, Prince Muhammad Azam, and Prince Kam Baksh. In the contest, the eldest son, Shah Alam, came out successful and he succeeded to the throne under the title of Bahadur Shah in 1708 A. D. The new emperor was cultured and enlightened, and he was able to maintain the stability of the empire during his time. He saw the wisdom of maintaining peace with the Mahrattas in the Deccan, and the Rajputs, and released Sahu and Ajit Singh from prison. He also suppressed a revolt of the Sikhs headed by Banda Bahadur. Bahadur Shah died in 1712 A. D.

The death of Bahadur Shah I was followed by a war of succession among his four sons. Jahandar Shah who came out successful spent his time in pleasures, and left the administration in the hands of his favourites. The rule of Jahandar Shah lasted only for eleven months. Farrukhsiyar, the son of the emperor's brother, now raised the standard of revolt. He strangled Jahandar Shah in the Delhi fort and ascended the throne with the help of the two Sayyid brothers, Sayyid Hussain Ali Khan and Abdulla Khan. Farrukhsiyar soon found himself a puppet in the hands of the Sayyid brother's who controlled the entire machinery of government. The Sayyid brothers were *Shiahs* and they showed a marked tolerance for the Hindus. Hence, they were hated by the orthodox Muslim nobles in the court. When the emperor began to intrigue against them they killed him. After Farrukhsiyar two nominal emperors were placed on the throne only to die in quick succession. Finally, Muhammad Shah, a grandson of Bahadur Shah, ascended the throne in 1719 A.D. The Sayyid brothers continued to be the masters of the situation. They insulted the Muslim nobility in many ways. The nobles hatched a plot against Hussain Ali and he was assassinated. Abdulla who gathered an army was defeated near Agra and taken prisoner. Muhammad Shah, thus, freed himself from the control of the King-makers, as the Sayyid brothers were called.

The removal of the Sayyid brothers did not improve the situation. On the other hand, under Muhammad Shah the empire began to decline rapidly. Several semi-independent States came into existence. Nizam-ul-Mulk, the most powerful noble of the time, who

became the *Vazir* in 1722 A. D. got disgusted with the character of the emperor, and gave up his office in 1724 A. D. He marched south and founded the State of Hyderabad in the Deccan. Bengal, Oudh and the Punjab became practically independent. The Mahrattas began to expand northwards and overran Malwa, Gujarat and Bundelkhand. Above all, in 1738—39 A.D., Nadir Shah of Persia descended upon the plains of northern India.

Invasion of Nadir Shah, 1738—39 A. D.

Nadir Shah was a Persian adventurer of obscure origin. Beginning life as a shepherd in Khorasan, Nadir Shah had, by sheer military genius, seized the throne of Persia in 1736 A. D. He was attracted to India by the fabulous wealth for which she was famous. He overcame the opposition of the western Afghans and conquered the Mughal province of Kabul. He next laid siege to Lahore, and then advanced on to Delhi. Muhammad Shah assembled his forces and met the invading army at Karnal, twenty miles north of Panipat. The Mughal army suffered a crushing defeat and Muhammad Shah was made prisoner. At Delhi Nadir Shah ordered a general massacre of the population of Delhi. Thousands of civil population fell victims to the Persian sword, and it was with the greatest difficulty that Nadir Shah could be persuaded to stop the slaughter. In the end Muhammad Shah was compelled to cede to the invader the Punjab, Multan, Sind and Kabul. The total plunder from Delhi was estimated at seventy crores of rupees. Nadir Shah also carried away the famous Kohinoor diamond and the Peacock throne of Shah Jahan.

Ahmed Shah Abdali

Nadir Shah's sack of Delhi encouraged general lawlessness and anarchy in the country. Although Muhammad Shah regained his throne, he was unable to maintain order in the land. Nadir Shah was assassinated in 1747 A. D. and immediately his treasurer, Ahmed Shah Abdali, took possession of Kandahar, and in imitation of his master, invaded India in 1748 A. D. He was defeated by prince Ahmed, a younger son of Muhammad. Muhammad Shah died in 1748 A. D. Ahmed Shah Abdali invaded the Punjab again 1750 A. D., 1752 A. D., 1756—57 A. D., 1761 A. D., 1762 A. D. and 1767 A. D. As a result of these invasions Abdali succeeded in establishing his authority over a large part of north-western India. Punjab ceased to be a part of the Mughal empire. In 1671 A. D. he defeated the Mahrattas in the Third Battle of Panipat. This was a spectacular victory although it did not bring him any permanent political gain. His victories in India consolidated his authority in Afghanistan and provided him with resources for the maintenance of a powerful army.

By the time Muhammad Shah died, the Mughal empire had ceased to exercise any real power. During the one hundred and ten years from the death of the Muhammad Shah in 1748 A. D. to the Mutiny of 1857 A. D., five phantom emperors, Ahmed Shah (1748-1754 A. D.), Alamgir II (1754-1759 A. D.), Shah Alam II (1759-1806 A. D.), Akbar II (1806-1837 A. D.) and Bahadur Shah (1837-1857 A. D.) sat on the Mughal throne. The decline of the Mughal empire during this period was steady and rapid. Ahmed Shah ceded the Punjab and Multan to Ahmed Shah Abdali who invaded India thrice during his reign. During the reign of Alamgir II Ahmed Shah Abdali invaded India for the fourth time and sacked the city of Mathura. Shah Alam II was defeated by the British in the battle of Buxar. He signed the Treaty of Allahabad with Robert Clive and granted the *Diwani* rights over Bengal, Bihar and Orissa to the English East India Company. In 1803 A. D. General Lake captured Delhi and Shah Alam remained at Delhi under British protection. Akbar II had no kingdom to rule. He remained a prisoner of the British in the Red Fort of Delhi. Yet, he was allowed to have the imperial title. Bahadur Shah II played a prominent role in the Mutiny of 1857 A. D. After the suppression of the Mutiny the British deported Bahadur Shah to Rangoon where he died in 1862 A. D. The Mughal dynasty came to an end with his death.

CAUSES OF MUGHAL DECLINE

Religious Policy and the Deccan Wars of Aurangzeb

The Mughal empire reached its greatest extent during the reign of Aurangzeb. But it collapsed within a few decades after his death. Many writers attribute the decline of the Mughal empire to the religious bigotry of Aurangzeb and to his disastrous wars in the Deccan. The intolerance of Aurangzeb, and his senseless destruction of the Hindu temples antagonised the vast majority of the Hindu population. The Rajputs, the Sikhs, the Jats, and the Mahrattas rose in rebellion against the Mughal rule. Consequently, Aurangzeb was deprived of the willing services of the Rajputs whose valour and loyalty had been the stoutest prop of the empire. His narrow orthodoxy also estranged the *Shia* Muslim population who formed a very able professional class. Aurangzeb lost their services. The result was administrative inefficiency. The Deccan wars of Aurangzeb were equally disastrous. His destruction of the sultanates of Bijapur and Golconda facilitated the rise of Mahrattas, and his long-drawn-out wars against the Mahrattas ruined his finances and undermined his prestige. Further, the Deccan wars necessitated the prolonged absence of the emperor from the capital and thereby weakened the very foundations of his government.

However, it will not be correct to say that the religious policy of Aurangzeb and the wars he waged on the Deccan were solely responsible for the downfall of the Mughal empire. In fact, the downfall was the outcome of several factors which were at work since the days of Shah Jahan. Aurangzeb, by his religious bigotry and the incessant wars waged in the Deccan, hastened the process of decline, but did not cause it. The factors which caused the Mughal decline may be summed as follows:

Weakness of the Successors of Aurangzeb

The government of the Mughals was a personal despotism and so its success depended on the personal character of the ruler. From Babar to Aurangzeb we have, on the whole, a line of able and competent rulers. The successors of Aurangzeb were, however unworthy of the positions they held. They could not preserve their precious inheritance. Under them the empire steadily declined and ultimately fell to pieces.

Absence of a Law of Succession

The absence of any law of peaceful succession among the Mughals gave rise to rivalries, intrigues and corruption which in their turn produced administrative chaos. The end of almost every reign or the beginning of the next, was disfigured by bloody civil wars. These wars had a very demoralising effect on the stability of the government.

Degeneration of Nobility

The degeneration of the rulers led to the degeneration of the nobility. During the eighteenth century there was great decline in the standard of the nobles. They were engaged in mutual rivalries, abduction of women, and plunder of civilian properties. They were incapable of discharging their duties when the empire needed their services for its continued existence.

Weakness of the Army

Military inefficiency was one of the major causes of the downfall of the Mughal empire. The Mughals did not keep a regular standing army or national militia. The army consisted mainly of mercenaries drawn from different creeds and races by Mansabdars. Its allegiance was not to the imperial throne, but to persons in immediate command. Under the Mansabdari system no uniformity of training and equipment was possible. There was no way of enforcing uniform discipline in the army. These defects made the army incapable of swift action or brilliant adventure.

Excessive Territorial Expansion

Under Aurangzeb the Mughal empire became too big to be governed effectively from a single centre. The outlying provinces were difficult to manage and consequently they suffered from mal-administration. Under the degenerate Mughals the hold of the central government upon the provinces became weak, and this let loose the forces of disintegration. The administrative system of the empire had completely broken down.

Financial Crisis

Financial exhaustion also contributed to the decline. The resources of the State were wasted for the conduct of costly wars and erection of profitless tombs and monuments. The Central Asian adventures and the Deccan wars of the Mughal emperors caused a heavy drain on the resources of the State. As nothing was done by the State to promote the economic welfare of the people, agriculture and industry came to a standstill. Famines and epidemics increased the economic misery of the people.

Foreign Invasions and the Rise of the Mahrattas

When the empire was in a dying condition as a result of the factors mentioned above, it was subjected to foreign invasions. Nadir Shah's invasion in 1739 gave a death blow to the already dying empire. Ahmed Shah Abdali of Afghanistan invaded the Punjab seven times between 1748 and 1767 A. D. In 1756 A. D. he captured Delhi and plundered the city. Kabul, Sind and western Punjab were completely occupied by the invader. The aggressions of the Mahrattas and the establishment of the British rule destroyed the remnant of the Mughal empire.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Summarise the causes of the decline and downfall of the Mughal empire.
2. To What extent were the invasions of Nadir Shah and Ahmad Shah Abdali responsible for the collapse of the Mughal empire?

Short-answer Type

1. Give brief account of the invasion Nadir Shah.
2. Give a brief account of the invasions of Ahmad Shah Abdali and point out their significance.

Objective Type**A. Name the following:**

(a) The Mughal emperor who released Sahu and Agit Singh from prison.

(b) The Mughal ministers popularly known as Sayyid Brothers.

(c) The Mughal emperor killed by Sayyid Brothers.

(d) The founder of the State of Hyderabad.

(e) The Mughal emperor during the invasion of Nadir Shah.

B. Match the following:

1. Nadir Shah

Kandahar

2. Ahmed Shah Abdali

The Third Battle of Panipat

3. Mahrattas

Karnal

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CHAPTER XIII

Society and Culture Under the Mughals

The Mughals had established in India an imperial State in the true sense. The Great Mughals gave India such unity as she had not experienced since the days of Asoka. Administrative centralization was achieved in a large measure. Social conditions remained basically the same as under the sultans. But, the empire stood out as a symbol of economic prosperity and cultural eminence.

Social Condition

The organization of society in India during the Mughal rule was feudal in character. At the top of the system was the king. His court was the centre of wealth and influence. Below him were the official nobles, the *mansabdars*. They held positions of honour and influence. The Mughal nobles rendered great services to the empire in war and civil administration, but they remained, in most cases, adventurers without roots in the soil and selfish seekers of personal fortune. They spent their incomes in luxuries which were morally ruinous and economically unproductive. The middle class consisted of the shop-keepers, the traders, the merchants, the bankers, as well as the physicians, and the writer caste. They led frugal lives. The condition of the lower orders, as compared to the two upper classes, was miserable. The peasants and artisans were cruelly oppressed.

The people were conservative in their habits, and their life moved in the traditional manner. The Hindus formed the majority of the population. There was mutual hatred between the Hindus and Muslims. Except under Akbar, religious intolerance was the general rule. Bribery and corruption were widely prevalent. The standard of morality was low. The *Purdah* system was in vogue both among the Hindus and Muslims. Polygamy was common. There was no regular system of education. The schools attached to the mosques called *maktabs* taught the boys and girls. Princes and girls of the nobility were educated at home, and some of them distinguished themselves in Persian and Arabic.

Economic Condition

Agriculture was the main occupation of the vast majority of the people. Apart from food crops, there was the cultivation of sugar, indigo, and cotton. Tobacco was introduced about 1604 A. D., and soon began to be cultivated. Under Akbar irrigation works were undertaken and maintained well. The prices of articles of common consumption such as rice, vegetables, meat, milk, etc., were very low. In spite of such symptoms of economic prosperity, famines were not infrequent, and the suffering of the common people knew no bounds.

The manufacture of cotton cloth was the principal industry. There were important centres of cotton manufacture in Bengal, Gujarat, Khandesh, Orissa, Patna, Banaras, and Jaunpur. Silk-weaving was an important industry in Bengal, Agra, Lahore, and Gujarat. Saltpetre was manufactured in different parts of the country, particularly in Bihar. Iron was produced in Golconda. There was also mining of diamond and precious stones in the Deccan.

Trade, both inland and foreign, made much progress. The construction of roads and bridges and the development of waterways gave an impetus to internal trade. India in the Mughal times carried on an extensive trade with the neighbouring countries of Asia. The principal articles of export were saltpetre, indigo, opium, cotton-fabrics, pepper and sugar. The imports included horses, raw silk, precious stones, Chinese porcelain and African slaves. The principal ports were Surat, Broach, Cambay, Calicut, Cochin, Masulipatnam, and Chittagong.

India, during the Mughal period, attained a high level of economic prosperity. The empire was at the height of its economic prosperity under Akbar. However, conditions of life deteriorated in the later reigns. Particularly, the condition of the ordinary people was miserable. While the nobles rolled in wealth, the ordinary people suffered untold misery. It is on record that the people sold themselves to slavery for food in times of famine.

Literature

The Mughal period saw a remarkable outburst of literary and artistic activities. The Mughal emperors were great lovers of literature, and thanks to their encouragement, literature, especially, Persian and Hindi made great progress. Babar was a gifted writer in Turkish and Persian. His autobiography, *Babar Nama*, was his greatest literary achievement. Humayun was a man of fine literary tastes, and is said to have carried with him a library even during his military expeditions. The reign of Akbar was the golden age of Mughal literature. The greatest writer in the Persian language in Akbar's reign was his friend and admirer Abul Fazl, the author of the two famous works, *Akbar-Nama* and *Ain-i-Akbari*. Together,

these two works constitute a monumental account of the Mughal empire in Akbar's reign. Other important historians of the 'Age of Akbar' were Badauni, author of *Muntakhab-ut-Tawarikh*, and Nizam-ud-din Ahmad, author of *Tabaqat-i-Akbari*. Badauni was a hostile critic of Akbar; Nizam-ud-din was neither hostile nor friendly, and he is regarded as the best historian of the period. Another great writer was Faizi, the brother of Abul Fazl. After Amir Khusrau of Delhi, Mohammadan India has seen no greater poet than Faizi. Under the emperor's patronage several important works written in Sanskrit were translated into Persian. These included the *Mahabharata*, the *Ramayana*, the *Atharva Veda* and the *Lilavati*, a work on mathematics.

The greatest Hindi poet of Akbar's reign was Tulsidas, author of the *Ramacharitamansa*. He did not enjoy imperial patronage. His contemporary, Surdas, the blind poet of Agra, was associated with the imperial court. Raja Todar Mal, Raja Mansingh, Bhagavan Das and Birbal, courtiers of Akbar, also enriched the Hindi literature by their poems.

Jahangir continued the Mughal tradition of extending imperial patronage to Persian literature. Like Babur, he wrote an autobiography which testifies to his excellent literary taste. Shah Jahan's primary interest lay in the domain of architecture, but extended his liberal patronage to well-known historians like Abul Hamid Lahori, author of *Padshah Nama*, and Inayat Khan, author of the *Shah Jahan Nama*. During the reign of Shah Jahan, there flourished gifted Hindi poets like Biharilal of Jaipur. It was the patronage of local rulers rather than the imperial court which contributed to the development of Hindi. Dara prepared Persian versions of the *Atharva Veda*, some of the *Upnishads*, and the *Bhagavad Gita*. Aurangzeb's literary interest was confined to theology and law. Under his direction a great digest of Muslim law was compiled. He was opposed to the composition of historical accounts of his reign. But several important works were written in his reign.

Art and Architecture

The Mughals were great builders, and it was in the field of architecture that the Mughals made their most impressive contribution to Indian culture. The palaces, forts, mosques, mausoleums and other edifices built by them bear testimony to their great genius and exquisite tastes. The Mughal architecture is a blend of Hindu and Muslim elements, and, therefore, it is known as the Indo-Persian style of architecture.

Babar constructed buildings at Agra, Sikri, Gwalior, Biyana, Dholpur and Kiul (Aligarh), but only two of his buildings, a large mosque at *Kabuli Bagh at Panipat* and the *Jami Masjid at Sambhal*,
CC-0. Jangamwadi Math Collection. Digitized by eGangotri

have survived to this day. Humayun had little time to engage himself in building activities. However, a mosque built by him is still seen in the Punjab. The two most remarkable buildings of Sher Shah's time are the mosque in Purana Qila near Delhi, and the tomb of Sher Shah at Sasaram.

The history of Mughal art really begins in the reign of Akbar. Akbar's catholicity in religious matters was reflected in his buildings. His buildings are characterized by a happy blending of Hindu and Muslim styles. One of his earliest buildings is the tomb of Humayun at Delhi which bears traces of Persian influence. But it was influenced by Indian art traditions also. Akbar's palace in the Agra Fort commonly called the Jahangiri Mahal shows very clearly the influence of the Hindu style. At Fatehpur Sikri where Akbar's capital was located from 1568 to 1584 A. D. the best examples of Akbar's buildings are to be found. They include Rani Jodh Bai's palace, the *Diwan-i-Am*, the *Diwan-i-Khas*, the *Jami Masjid* with the famous *Buland Darwaza*, and the Panch Mahal. The *Jami Masjid* is one of the largest mosques in India. The *Buland Darwaza*, built to mark Akbar's conquest of Gujarat, is a magnificent piece of work. Jahangir built Akbar's mausoleum at Sikandra and the tomb of Itimud-ud-Daulah, his father-in-law, at Agra.

Shah Jahan was the greatest builder among the Mughal rulers. He constructed palaces, forts, gardens, and mosques in many cities. The *Taj Mahal* at Agra is the most splendid building of Shah Jahan. It is considered to be one of the wonders of the world because of its unique beauty and charm. It was built by Shah Jahan in memory of his beloved wife, Mumtaz Mahal. It is built in pure white marble. It is said that about 20,000 men took 22 years to complete it. In view of its exquisite beauty it has been described as a "dream in marble". Inside the Agra fort Shah Jahan built the *Diwan-i-Am*, the *Diwan-i-Khas*, and the *Moti Masjid* or the Pearl Mosque. In Delhi Shah Jahan built the Red Fort and the *Diwan-i-Am*, the *Diwan-i-Khas*, and the *Jami-Masjid*, in that fort. He also built a palace and a mosque at Kabul, royal palaces at Kashmir, and various buildings in different cities of the empire. Shah Jahan also made the Peacock throne which was a splendid work of art. After Shah Jahan the splendour of Mughal architecture declined, and the few buildings that were constructed under Aurangzeb show no special beauty of design or execution.

Painting

Painting was not encouraged by the sultans of Delhi as the Koran does not allow the pictures of living beings. The Mughal emperors, on the other hand, encouraged the art of painting. Humayun was the first Mughal emperor to show an interest in painting. He brought two famous painters, Mir Sayyid Ali and Khwaja

Abdus Samad, with him when he came back from his Persian exile. They were entrusted with the work of illustrating the famous book *Dastan-i-Amir Hamzah*. and they completed the work in Akbar's reign. Akbar took special interest in the development of this art. He employed many Indian painters and asked them to work under the guidance of Khwaja Abdus Samad. This led to the gradual fusion of Indian and Persian styles of painting. As a result, a new style known as the 'Mughal School of Painting' came into existence. The paintings of Akbar's time were, however, not of high quality, and were, confined to book illustrations and portraits.

The Mughal painting reached a high degree of perfection under Jahangir and Shah Jahan. Jahangir took more interest in this art than his father. The two most eminent painters of his reign were Abul Hasan and Mansur. Abul Hasan painted the Darbar scene at the time of the accession of Jahangir to the throne. Shah Jahan took as much interest in painting as he took in architecture. The most prominent court painters of his reign were Faqirullah, Mir Hashim, Anup and Chitra. The art of painting, like that of architecture, received a set-back during the reign of Aurangazeb. Some of the paintings of the palaces of Bijapur and Golconda were defaced when Aurangazeb conquered these kingdoms. As the artists were now deprived of royal patronage, they migrated to provincial courts such as Lucknow, Hyderabad, Mysore, and Bengal. The Mughal style continued to flourish in these provincial courts.

Music

The art of music also received patronage from Akbar, Jahangir and Shah Jahan. Akbar was a great patron of music and according to Abul Fazal, there were more than thirty musicians in his court. Mian Tansen was the most famous of them all. He is considered to be the most accomplished musician of his age. Another great musician was Baz Bahadur who is said to have been most learned in the science of music. Jahangir and Shah Jahan were also lovers of music. The latter was himself the author of many songs. With Shah Jahan's death the art of music declined. Under Aurangazeb poets and musicians were expelled from the court, and music performances were banned.

Foreign Travellers

During the Mughal period a number of European travellers visited India. The earliest to arrive were the Jesuits who visited Akbar's court. They took part in religious discussions and hoped to convert the emperor to Christianity. During the reign of Jahangir Captain William Hawkins and Sir Thomas Roe came to Agra as ambassadors from the court of England to seek permission to establish trade connections with India. Roe's journal describes the life

in the court, and the administration of the country. He gives pen pictures of prominent personalities and detailed accounts of important festivals. Another English traveller of Jahangir's reign was Edward Terry, the chaplain of Thomas Roe, and his records contain detailed information regarding daily life in the Mughal court. Pelsaret, a Dutch merchant, was another foreigner who visited India during Jahangir's reign. He speaks of the wealth of the country and the oppressions of the provincial governors and revenue collectors. The artisans were ill-paid and lived in a miserable condition. The petty shop-keepers were better off than the peasants and artisans, but they were badly treated by the officers and nobles to whom they had to supply goods at a cheaper rate. The slaughter of cows and oxen were forbidden by Jahangir.

The most important foreigner who visited India during Shah Jahan's reign was Tavernier, a Frenchman. He writes about the wealth of the emperor, the Taj Mahal and the Peacock throne. A French physician, Bernier, was the most famous among the European travellers who visited India during this period. He came to India at the close of Shah Jahan's reign and resided in the country for about nine years. He gives an account of the war of succession and the cruelties and intrigues of Aurangzeb. According to him agriculture had declined, the artisans were in distress, and the provincial governors oppressed the people. The army was large and a lot of money was spent on it. The Judges did not have sufficient authority to deal with those who harassed the poor people. The province of Bengal was rich and fertile. Cotton and silk were produced in large quantities and sent to Asiatic countries and Europe.

Manucci, a Venetian, Thevenot, a Frenchman, Dr. Fryer, an English surgeon and Fr. Ovington were among the other foreign travellers of the period. The accounts of these travellers supplement the information furnished by contemporary Muslim historians.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Briefly outline the social economic conditions under the Mughal rule.
2. Outline Mughal achievements in art and literature.

Short-answer Type

1. Write briefly on the foreign travellers and their accounts of the Mughal period.

Objective Type

A. Name the following :

- (a) The autobiography of Babar.
- (b) The author of *Akbar Nama*.
- (c) Two important historians of Akbar's reign.
- (d) The author of *Ramacharitamansa*.
- (e) The blind poet of Agra during Akbar's reign.
- (f) Two most remarkable buildings of Sher Shah's time.
- (g) The structure built to mark Akbar's conquest of Gujarat.
- (h) The Mughal emperor who expelled poets and musicians from his court.

B. Match the following :

A	B
1. Iron	Duch merchant
2. Dara	Golconda
3. Mumtaz Mahal	Taj Mahal
4. Pelsaret	Persian version of Upanishads

CHAPTER XIV

Rise of the Sikh Power

The Sikh religion began as part of the general religious revival which took place in India in the 15th and 16th centuries A. D. The founder of the Sikh religion was *Guru Nanak* (1469—1538 A. D.) Like the other great leaders of the *Bhakti* cult, Nanak preached the unity of Godhead, universal brotherhood of man, and religious toleration. As Kabir had done before, he also condemned caste distinctions, idol worship, rituals and ceremonies. According to him, good deeds alone shall be counted by God. Nanak was interested only in the purification of Hindu religion and the reformation of the Hindu society. He laid stress on a life of moral purity, forbade the use of wine and tobacco, and condemned *Sati*. The simplicity of his teachings won for *Guru Nanak* a large number of followers. Nanak called his followers Sikhs or Disciples, and his reform movement came to be called Sikhism.

Guru Nanak attached great importance to the discipleship to a *Guru* in the realization of God. He, therefore, nominated Angad, one of his disciples, as his successor before his death in 1538 A. D. at the age of 69. He asked his followers to accept Angad as their *Guru* after his death. Thus, nine *Gurus* succeeded him one after the other. All of them were deeply religious men, and carried on the work and teachings of *Guru Nanak*.

Guru Angad (1538—1552 A. D.) carried on the work of his master and made Sikhism a very popular faith in the Punjab. Under him the Sikhs began to develop into a distinct community. He introduced the *Gurumukhi* script for the spoken language of the Punjabis. He prepared a biography of *Guru Nanak*. The teachings of Nanak were collected in this book. Thus, *Guru Angad* rendered a great service to Sikhism. But for his tireless efforts, this new faith would have been absorbed in Hinduism. *Guru Angad* was succeeded by *Guru Amardas* (1552—1574 A. D.) The number of followers of Sikhism grew so rapidly under him that he divided his followers into 22 divisions. Each of these divisions was placed under the charge of a devout follower of the *Guru*. This organization of the followers proved very helpful in the rapid spread of Sikhism. He introduced some social reforms such as the prohibition of *Sati*. The Sikhs, thus, became a separate community with its own social customs and religious ideals. The fourth *Guru*, Ramdas (1574—1581 A. D.) was

a contemporary of the Mughal emperor Akbar. The emperor showed great respect to the *Guru* and, on his recommendation, remitted the land-tax of the poor peasants of the Punjab for one year. This made the *Guru* very popular among the peasants of the Punjab. *Guru Ramdas* laid the foundations of Amritsar, which gradually became the greatest centre of Sikh pilgrimage. *Ramdas* nominated his son *Arjun* as his successor. From this time onward, the position of *Guru* became hereditary.

The fifth *Guru*, *Arjun* (1581—1606 A. D.) was a great organizer. He completed the construction of Amritsar which was begun by his father, and built a temple known as the Golden Temple in the city. He enjoined upon all Sikhs to give one-tenth of their income to the *Guru*. He organized the *masand* system for the purpose of collecting contributions from his followers. The greatest achievement of *Guru Arjun* was the compilation of the *Granth Sahib*, the sacred book of the Sikhs, in 1604 A. D. *Arjun's* political and religious activities excited the suspicions of *Jahangir*. *Guru Arjun* was accused by *Jahangir* of complicity in *Khusru's* rebellion, and subsequently executed on the order of the emperor. This action of *Jahangir* was a great political blunder. The martyrdom of their *Guru* roused the entire Sikh community. Hitherto Sikhism was a peace-loving sect, but now the Sikhs took up arms in order to fight against the Mughals.

The evolution of the Sikhs as a military sect began under the sixth *Guru*, *Har Govind* (1606—1645 A. D.) *Har Govind* took upon himself the double role of a military leader as well as spiritual guide. He began to dress himself like a military general. He also assumed the title of *Sachcha Padsha*. He was a man of warlike and adventurous spirit and gathered a small army around him. The *Guru* fortified Amritsar and constructed a new fort there. *Jahangir* could not tolerate the rise of the Sikhs as a military power, and arrested *Har Govind*. The *Guru* had to undergo twelve years of imprisonment. He was set free towards the end of *Jahangir's* reign. The next Mughal emperor *Shah Jahan* also followed a hostile policy towards the Sikhs. The *Guru* died in 1645 A. D. and was succeeded by his grandson *Har Rai*.

Guru Har Rai (1645—1661 A. D.) made peace with the Mughal emperor and devoted himself to spiritual work. The eighth *Guru*, *Har Krishan* (1661—1664 A. D.) was a child of five years. He died in 1664 A. D. *Har Krishan* did not nominate a successor. *Tegh Bahadur* (1664—1675 A. D.) the son of the sixth *Guru*, *Har Govind*, became the ninth *Guru*. He strongly protested against the policy of religious intolerance followed by *Aurangzeb*. The emperor got annoyed and summoned him to Delhi. He was asked either to embrace Islam or to face death. On his refusal to embrace Islam, the *Guru* was beheaded in 1675 A. D. The martyrdom of *Guru*

Tegh Bahadur roused feelings of revenge among the Hindus and Sikhs of the Punjab and turned them into deadly enemies of the Mughal empire.

Guru Govind Singh (1675—1708 A. D.), the only son of Tegh Bahadur, became *Guru* at the early age of ten. He had taken a vow to avenge the death of his father, and to fight against the tyranny of the Mughals. But this was not an easy task. He wanted to build up the Sikh community into a strong military power. He converted his disciples into a community of warriors and called it *Khalsa*. According to it, a ceremony of baptism was introduced in which all the Sikhs were given holy water consecrated by the sword. Every Sikh was asked to have the five K's, *Kesh* or long hair, *Kang* or comb, *Kripan* or sword, *Kachcha* or short drawers and *Kara* or steel bracelet. Govind Singh introduced a common surname for all the Sikhs, viz., Singh. He insisted upon the total abolition of the caste system. The members of the *Khalsa* dedicated their lives to the service of their religion and motherland.

Having converted his followers into a band of armed men, Govind Singh began a long struggle with the Mughals and the hill rajahs of the Punjab. Strong imperial forces were sent against him, and he was ultimately defeated. He lost all his four sons in the struggle. He gave the final shape to the *Granth Sahib*. As he had lost all his sons, he did not nominate a successor, but asked his followers to recognize the *Granth Sahib* as their *Guru*. Since then the holy book of the Sikhs is called *Guru Granth Sahib*. On Aurangzeb's death, Govind supported Bahadur Shah in the war of succession. When the *Guru* was accompanying Bahadur Shah on his Deccan campaign, he was murdered by a Pathan in 1708 A. D.

Guru Govind had nominated Banda Bahadur as the leader of the Sikhs. Banda was their temporal leader only, for the spiritual leadership had been abolished. During the reign of Bahadur Shah Banda captured Sirhind, killed its *Faujdar* who had murdered the sons of *Guru Govind Singh*, and occupied large areas at the foot of the Punjab hills. In 1715 A. D. during the reign of Farrukhsiyar, Banda was captured, and he was cruelly executed in 1716 A. D. The struggling Sikhs had no recognized leader, either spiritual or temporal; but the democratic spirit inherent in the Sikh tradition kept resistance alive. The invasions of Nadir Shah and Ahmed Shah Abdali weakened the Mughal position in the Punjab and improved the prospects of the Sikhs. Abdali aimed at securing the mastery of the Punjab and tried to crush Sikh resistance. In 1765 A. D. the Sikhs struck coins proclaiming the establishment of their independence. The efforts of Abdali to suppress the Sikhs, proved unsuccessful. He abandoned the eastern districts of the Punjab, including Lahore, to the Sikhs. All the territory between the Jhelum and the Chenab came under the control of the Sikhs. About a dozen

Sikh chieftains divided the territory among themselves. In the first quarter of the 19th century, Ranjit Sing, a Sikh chieftain, defeated all of them and founded a single Sikh State in the Punjab.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Give a brief account of the rise of the Sikh power.
2. Give an account of the life and teachings of Guru Nanak.
3. Estimate the work of eight Gurus starting from Guru Angad to Guru Tegh Bahadur in popularising Sikhism.
4. Write a short account of the career of Guru Govind Singh bringing out clearly his contribution to the rise of the Sikh power in the Punjab.
5. Describe the importance of Sikhism as a religious and political force.

Short-answer Type

1. What was the contribution of Guru Angad to the cause of Sikhism.
2. Bring out the history of Guru Arjun Dev in the history of the Sikh religion.
3. How did the Sikh faith undergo a great change under the sixth Guru Har Govind.
4. Why was Guru Tegh Bahadur executed by the Mughal emperor Aurangzeb? What were its consequences?
5. Who was the tenth and the last Guru of the Sikhs? Bring out his importance in the history of the Sikh religion.

Objective Type

A. Name the following:

- (a) The founder of the Sikh religion.
- (b) The script introduced by Guru Angad for the spoken language of the Sikhs.
- (c) The temple built by Guru Arjun in Amritsar.
- (d) The sacred book of the Sikhs.
- (e) The leader of the Sikhs nominated by Guru Govind.

B. Match the following:

- A**
1. Guru Angad
 2. Guru Ramdas
 3. Guru Arjun

- B**
- Amritsar
 - Khusru's rebellion
 - Gurmukhi script.

CHAPTER XV

Rise of the Mahratta Power

Maharashtra is that part of western India lying in the shape of a triangle with one side represented by the western coast line from Daman to Karwar, another side by the Sahyadri ranges running from north to south, and the third side by the Satpura and Vindhya ranges going from east to west. The people of Maharashtra, the Mahrattas, were simple, active, and self-reliant. Language and religion provided them a basis for unity. From the thirteenth to the seventeenth century A. D., however, the Mahrattas were dispersed in several States. The seventeenth century A. D. saw a gigantic national awakening in Maharashtra. But it was not a sudden and abrupt emergence without deep roots in the soil. On the other hand, it was the outcome of several factors operating for a long time in the country.

Rise of Mahratta Nationalism

The geography of the Maharashtra country had influenced the character and behaviour of the people. The Sahyadri ranges running from the north to south and the Satpura and the Vindhya ranges running from the east to west provided natural defences to the region. The mountainous territory with a number of hill forts gave it security from outside invaders. The unproductive soil with scanty rainfall made the people hard-working and self-reliant. They developed the virtues of honesty, courage and vigour. The mountainous surroundings provided them with opportunities for cultivating the guerilla tactics.

Great saints and religious reformers such as Tukaram, Ramadas and Ekanath gave a fresh interpretation to Hinduism by emphasising the devotional aspect of worship and equality of all men before God. They preached the people to overcome all differences based on caste and birth. Everywhere, there was a longing to assert the Hindu way of life and defend the Hindu religion against the onslaughts of Islam.

Even before the rise of Shivaji as a national hero, the Mahrattas acquired experience as administrators and soldiers working for the sultanates of the Deccan. Several hill-forts near the western Ghats were in the hold of Mahratta Jagirdars. All these factors contributed

to the emergence of an independent kingdom in course of time. Shivaji was a product of the new-born Mahratta nationalism. He was also its greatest patron. It was under Shivaji that the Mahrattas became an aggressive power.

SHIVAJI (1627—1680 A. D.)

Shivaji was born of Shajhi Bhonsle and Jija Bai at Shivaner on 6 April 1627. Shahji first served the sultan of Bijapur, and then entered the service of Ahmadnagar. Jija Bai was a pious and devoted lady. Shivaji was brought up in the fort of Poona under the care of his mother who inspired him with the stories of the epic-gods, Rama and Krishna. Dadaji Kondadev, the administrator of his father's jagirs at Poona, also moulded Shivaji's life to a considerable extent.

Shivaji's Early Conquests

Shivaji began his career of conquests in 1646 A. D. by seizing the fortress of Torna in the south-west of Poona. Next he occupied the forts of Purandhar, Kondana, and Kalyan. These victories of Shivaji alarmed Muhammad Adil Shah, the sultan of Bijapur, who ordered the imprisonment of Shahji Bhonsle. Shivaji appealed to Prince Murad, the Mughal viceroy of the Deccan to intervene on his father's behalf. The sultan of Bijapur immediately released Shahji to avoid Mughal intervention. From this time 1649 A. D., to 1656 A. D. Shivaji remained quite, consolidating his gains.

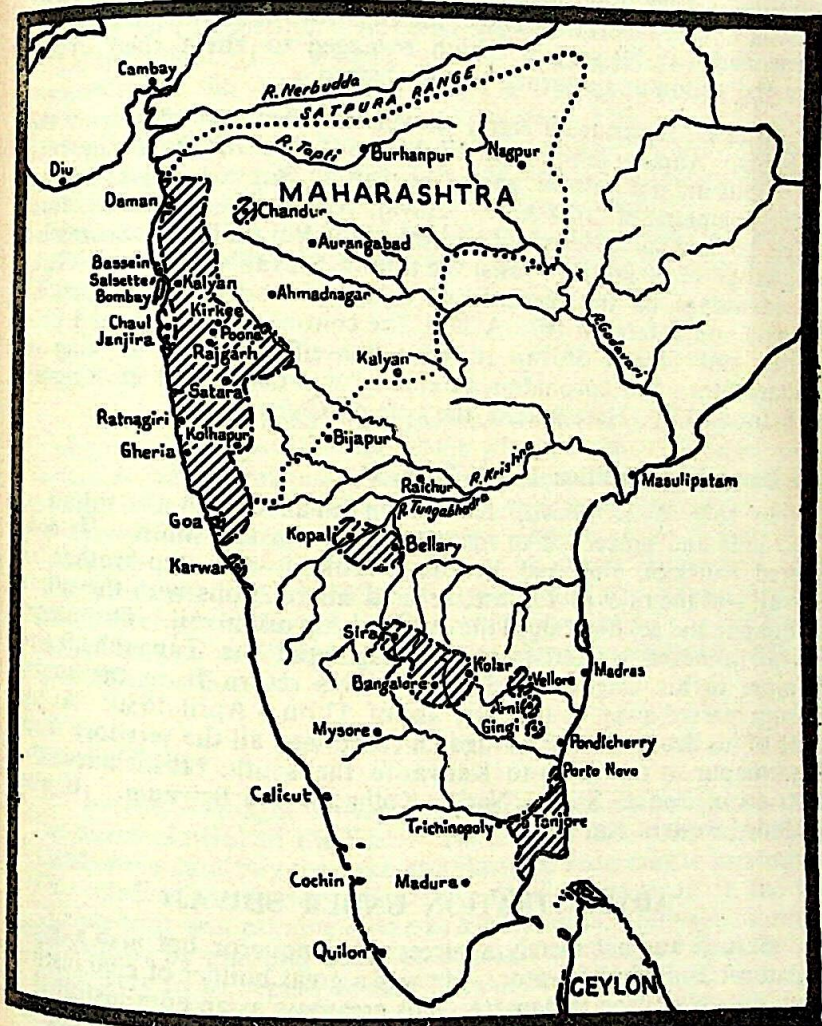
Wars with Bijapur

In 1656 A. D. Mahammad Adil Shah, the sultan of Bijapur died. His successor was a young man of 18. Shivaji found it advantageous to make further conquests and captured Javali, a small State, the chief of which was a feudatory of Bijapur. The possession of Javali enabled him to extend his conquests to the south and west, and furnished him with an excellent recruiting ground. This was followed by the capture of Rajgarh which he afterwards made the capital of his new kingdom. In 1657 A. D. Shivaji made further gains of territory. The ruler of Bijapur asked Shahji to stop his son's aggressions, but he replied that the matter was beyond his control. Then the Bijapur government resolved to take action. In 1659 A. D. Bijapur sent an army against Shivaji under Afzal Khan, a noble of the highest rank. In a scuffle that followed between Shivaji and Afzal Khan, the latter was killed and the Bijapur forces were routed.

War with the Mughals

In 1660 A. D. Aurangzeb sent Shaista Khan, an able and experienced general, to put down the menace of the Mahrattas.

Shaista Khan proceeded to Konkon and got some initial successes. He captured a few forts from Shivaji with 400 followers. Shivaji made a surprise attack on the residence of Shaista Khan and killed his son. In the encounter that followed a thumb of Shaista Khan was cut off,



7.....The Mahratta Empire under Shivaji

but the Mughal camp was plundered. Shivaji then attacked the city of Surat, the richest port in the Mughal empire. In 1665 A. D. Aurangzeb sent Raja Jai Singh as the governor of the Deccan to deal with Shivaji. He captured Purandhar and surrounded Shivaji

from all sides. Shivaji, seeing that further resistance was useless, sued for peace. Shivaji signed the Treaty of Purandhar in 1665 A.D. by which he promised to render military help to the Mughals in their wars against Bijapur. Jai Sing induced Shivaji to visit the Mughal court. Shivaji visited the Mughal court along with his son Sambhaji. They were not received with due respect as promised by Jai Sing. When Shivaji accused the emperor of bad faith, he was imprisoned with his son, but both managed to effect their escape from the prison and returned to the Deccan.

After his return from Agra, Shivaji avoided a conflict with the Mughals. Aurangzeb recognized Shivaji's title of Rajah in 1668 A.D., but did not restore any of his forts. But peace was broken at the beginning of 1670 A.D. Shivaji recovered some of the forts which he had surrendered by the treaty of Purandhar. Successive Mughal generals failed to resist the tide of Shivaji's successes. Taking advantage of the weakness of Bijapur he occupied the forts of Panhala and Satara in 1673 A.D. The continued success and prosperity emboldened Shivaji to have himself crowned as king of Maharashtra. His coronation ceremony was performed at Rajgarh on 6 June 1674. He assumed the title of *Chhatrapati*.

The Carnatic Expedition 1677—'78 A.D.

In 1676 A.D. Shivaji formed an alliance with the sultan of Golkonda and proceeded to make conquests in the south. He conquered Kurnool, Jinji and Vellore. Venkoji, the step-brother of Shivaji and the ruler of Tanjore, severed his relations with the sultan of Bijapur and acknowledged the overlordship of Shivaji. Thereupon, Shivaji annexed his territory extending from the Tungabhadra to Tanjore to his kingdom. Soon after his return from the south, Shivaji passed away at the early age of 53 on 3 April 1680. At the time of his death, Shivaji's kingdom comprised all the territory from Dharmapur in the north to Karwar in the south. It included the districts of Poona, Satara, Nasik, Kolhapur and Belgaum. It also included western Karnatak.

ADMINISTRATION UNDER SHIVAJI

Shivaji was not merely a successful conqueror but also a great organizer and administrator. He was a great builder of civil institutions like Napoleon Bonaparte. His greatness as an administrator is proved by the fact that he evolved order out of chaos under exceptionally difficult circumstances. He set up a sound system of administration which ensured peace and order throughout the kingdom.

Shivaji made a distinction between the territory directly governed by him which he called *Swarajya*, and the territories governed by foreign kings which he called *Mughlai*. The administrative system of Shivaji was intended for the *Swarajya*.

The government of the *Swarajya* was conducted by the king with the assistance of a Council of Eight Ministers called the *Ashta pradhan*. These ministers were (1) *peshwa* or prime minister, (2) *amatya* or finance minister, (3) *mantri* or the court chronicler, (4) *sachiva* or the minister in charge of royal correspondence, (5) *sumant* or the minister for foreign affairs, (6) *pandit rao* or the head of the ecclesiastical department, (7) *serapati* or the commander-in-chief and (8) *nyayadish* or the chief judge. All the ministers except *pandit rao* and the *nyayadish* had military duties also. There were 18 departments managed by the ministers under the guidance and supervision of the king. The *Ashta Pradhan* was only an advisory body. All ministers were paid in cash and no office was hereditary. There was also an elaborately organized bureaucracy. Shivaji also maintained a special department of spies which contributed to a great deal to Shivaji's victories.

Provincial Government

Shivaji divided the *Swarajya* into three provinces, each under a viceroy. The government of the province was organized on the model of the central government, the viceroy being assisted by a staff of eight chief officers. The provinces were subdivided into a number of *Prantas* or districts. There were altogether 15 *Prantas* in the *Swarajya*. The head of the *pranta* was known as *Desadhikari*. Each *pranta* consisted of a number of *parganas* and the *Havaldar* was the chief officer of the *pargana*. The administration of the village was carried on by the village communities through panchayats and their own village officers.

Revenue Policy

In the *Swarajya* Shivaji brought revenue administration under the direct control of the State. He did not follow the jagir system. Lands were carefully surveyed and classified according to productivity. One-third of the gross produce was fixed as the share of the State. The amount was payable either in kind or cash. Shivaji encouraged agriculture by granting loans to peasants in times of famines. The loans were to be repaid in easy instalments. The relief from feudal oppression and the provision of loans on favourable terms encouraged agriculture and increased the prosperity of the people.

Shivaji collected *Chauth* and *Sardeshmukhi* from the *Muglai* territories. *Chauth* was one-fourth of the standard assessment of land revenue. It was a military contribution paid to be free from the attacks of the *Mahrattas*. *Sardeshmukhi* was a payment of ten percent of land revenue which Shivaji claimed as the *Sardeshmukh* or chief Headman of Maharashtra.

Military

Shivaji organized a fighting force on an exceptionally efficient basis. He maintained a regular standing army recruited and equipped by the State. His army was mostly composed of cavalry and infantry, the former being the most formidable Mahratta weapon. His army comprised 1260 elephants and 300 camels also. Shivaji maintained a navy of 400 vessels. A special feature of the military organization of Shivaji was the maintenance of a large number of forts. There were 280 forts in his territory. Each fort was put under three officers of equal rank who formed a check on one another.

Shivaji enforced very strict discipline in the army. The soldiers were given regular salaries instead of jagirs. Women, dancing girls and female slaves were not permitted to enter the military camps. The soldiers were forbidden from molesting women and destroying crops during wars. Precious articles seized by soldiers during the campaigns were to be properly accounted for and given over to the State treasury.

Administration of Justice

There was no regular heirarchy of courts in the kingdom. The village *panchayats* heard and decided the cases. Criminal cases were tried by the village *patels*. Appeals were heard by the *nyayadish*.

Promotion of Culture

Shivaji encouraged learning. Children received their education in the homes of teachers. Shivaji liberally endowed temples and even mosques. Large sums of money were spent on charity and poor relief in times of famine.

SUCCESSORS OF SHIVAJI

Shivaji was succeeded by his son Sambhaji. He was a man of loose morals and he neglected all his responsibilities as a ruler. In 1689 A. D. Aurangzeb captured him, subjected him to inhuman cruelties and then executed him. Sambhaji's son Shivaji II, otherwise known as Sahu, was sent as a prisoner to Delhi. But the Mahratta spirit was not crushed. Rajaram, another son of Shivaji by his third wife, acted as regent and carried on the war against the Mughals. He intensified the guerilla warfare. When the Mughals captured Rajgarh in 1689 A. D. he escaped to the fort of Jinji in Karnatak and from there he conducted the war of independence. Aurangzeb laid siege to Jinji and captured it after a long siege of nearly eight years. After this Rajaram retreated to Satara which became the headquarters of Mahratta resistance. Aurangzeb then laid siege to Satara. The Mahrattas held out heroically until the death of Rajaram in 1700 A. D.

After the death of Rajaram, his minor son was raised to the throne as Shivaji III with Tara Bai, Rajaram's wife, as a regent. She vigorously continued the war of independence against the Mughals. Meanwhile, Aurangzeb died in 1707 A. D. and the new emperor Bahadur Shah sent back Sahu to Maharashtra. This led to a civil war between Sahu and Sivaji III. Although Tara Bai championed the cause of her son, many supported Sahu. The most famous among the supporters of Sahu was Balaji Viswanath. Sahu triumphed over his rivals.

THE GREAT PESHWAS

Balaji Viswanath

Sahu managed to defeat Tara Bai and became *Chhatrapati* or the king of Maharashtra. He obtained possession of Satara and seated himself upon the throne of Shivaji. Balaji Viswanath was appointed Peshwa.

Balaji Viswanath belonged to a Chitpavan Brahmin family of the Konkan. He began his career as a revenue officer in the Maharashtra service. It was as a reward for the loyal and efficient service he rendered to Sahu in his struggle against Tara Bai that he was made Peshwa in 1713 A. D. The long stay at the Mughal court had made Sahu ease-loving and indolent, and, therefore, he left the reins of government in the hands of the Peshwa. Gradually, Balaji Viswanath became the virtual ruler of Maharashtra and Sahu was reduced to the position of a mere titular head. Balaji Viswanath transferred the capital of Maharashtra from Satara to Poona, but Sahu continued to reside in Satara. Poona now became the seat of the Mahratta government.

Balaji first suppressed all troublesome elements and restored order in the State. The confusion which prevailed in the Mughal empire gave him excellent opportunities to display his diplomatic talents. He conducted a treaty with Sayyid Husain Ali, Mughal viceroy of the Deccan, by which Husain Ali recognized Sahu's authority not only over Shivaji's *Swarajya* but also over newly conquered territories in Khandesh, Berar, Gondwana and Karnatak. Sahu's right to collect *Chauth* and *Sardeshmukhi* from all the six Mughal Subahs in the Deccan was admitted. In return Balaji Viswanath agreed to pay the emperor an annual tribute of ten lakhs of rupees and to send a contingent of 15,000 troops for his protection. Balaji Viswanath accompanied Husain Ali to Delhi and helped him in the dethronement of Farrukhsiyar. The treaty was ratified by the successor of Farrukhsiyar. This treaty raised Sahu's prestige and established his position as the lawful ruler of the Mahrattas.

Balaji's greatest service was the creation of a political structure bringing together all the Mahratta chieftains. Rajaram had revived the Jagir system. This led to the growth of the power of the chieftains. Balaji knew the evils of the system, but he could not abolish it. Hence, he tried to strengthen the bonds of union among them by organizing a co-operative system for the collection and distribution of revenue. The chieftains were to collect *Chauth* and *Sardeshmukhi* from the Mughal and other foreign territories and give a fixed proportion of the collection to the king. This system for the smooth collection and distribution of revenue became the foundation of the Mahratta political structure which came to be known in later times as the Mahratta Confederacy.

Baji Rao (1720-1740 A. D.)

The post of the Peshwa became hereditary and Balaji Viswanath was succeeded by his son, Baji Rao in 1720 A. D. He was the most remarkable Mahratta leader. As a statesman and soldier, he was second only to Shivaji himself. Soon after coming to power he formulated the bold scheme of extending the Mahratta empire to the north by destroying the Mughal empire. He preached the ideal of a Hindu empire in order to secure the support of all the Hindu chiefs.

After putting down all opposition at home, Baji Rao invaded Malwa and Gujarat repeatedly and established the Mahratta hold in those regions. He organized expeditions against Chitaldurg and Seringapatnam during the years 1725 to 1727 A. D. Nizam ul-mulk resented these incursions and forced a war on Baji Rao. The Peshwa won a great victory at Palked and forced him to accept a dictated peace. The Nizam then tried another stroke by fomenting the jealousy of the Senapathy, Trimbak Rao, who had made himself strong in Gujarat. The Nizam then accepted a compromise formula by which he was to pursue his ambitions in the South and the Peshwa in the North. The Peshwa agreed not to invade the Nizam's territories on the condition of the payment of *Chauth* and *Sardeshmukhi*. The brother of Baji Rao marched his armies against Malwa, defeated its Mughal governor and occupied the territory in 1728 A. D. The Peshwa then went to the assistance of Chitrasal of Bundela who was harrassed by the Muslim governor of Allahabad. In return for this aid, he received one-third of the Bundela kingdom.

Having thus suppressed all opposition, the Peshwa turned against the Mughals. He marched to the neighbourhood of Delhi with an army. The emperor sought the help of the Nizam. The Nizam who came to the assistance of the emperor ignoring the earlier agreement was defeated and forced to sign a humiliating peace. The Peshwa got the whole of Malwa and the sovereignty of the region between the Chambal and the Narmada.

On the west coast, the Mahrattas acquired Bassein, Thana, and Salsette.

The greatest achievement of Baji Rao was the arrangement he made in order to put an end to the mutual rivalries of the different Mahratta chiefs. The leading Mahratta chiefs who were coming into prominence at the time were Raghoji Bhonsle of Nagpur, Pillaji Gackwad of Baroda, Mulhar Rao Holkar of Indore, and Ramaji Sindhia of Gwalior. The Peshwa partitioned the former Mughal provinces among the Mahratta chiefs as their spheres of influence. He granted them maximum autonomy within their own sphere of influence. They were free to levy taxes in the territories under their influence, but they had to pay a fixed amount to the Peshwa. They were to work under the Peshwa and had to participate in the military campaigns under the Peshwa's leadership against common enemies. This was a sort of union of the Mahratta chiefs with the Peshwa as their head. It came to be called the Mahratta Confederacy. The confederacy strengthened the loyalty of the Mahrattas to their king, maintained a balance of power among the chieftains and cemented the union among them.

When the Peshwa heard of Nadir Shah's invasion and the terrible happenings in Delhi, he thought of a patriotic plan of sinking his differences with the Muslims and offering an united resistance to the invader. But before he could do anything in this direction, he met with premature death at an early age of forty-two in 1740 A. D.

Balaji Baji Rao (1740—1761 A. D.)

Baji Rao I was succeeded by his son Balaji Baji Rao under whom the Mahratta power reached its zenith.

The Mahrattas under Raghoji Bhonsle and Bhaskar Pandit overran Orissa and inflicted a defeat upon Alivardi Khan, the governor of Bengal. They advanced upon Murshidabad, captured Hughli, and occupied West Bengal. At last a peace was signed by which Raghoji was to get Rs. 2 lakhs a year as *Chauth* of the province. The frontier was fixed and the Mahrattas agreed not to set foot on the soil of West Bengal.

Sahu died in 1749 A. D. Balaji had obtained from him a document which authorised him to manage the government of the Mahratta empire. Sahu was succeeded to the throne by Rama Raja, the supposed son of Shivaji II, the elder son of Tara Bai. Rama Raja was invited to Poona and persuaded to sign the "Sangola Agreement" by which the *Chhattrapati* handed over all powers to the Peshwa. The Peshwa thereafter became the virtual ruler of the Mahratta State. He despatched an army to the south which invested Serinagapatnam and collected tributes from most of the principalities south of the Krishna. The Nawab of Arcot was forced

to pay up the arrears of *Chauth*. The Nizam of Hyderabad was defeated at Udgir in 1759 A. D. and was forced to surrender Bijapur, Aurangabad and a portion of Bidar. The Peshwa's brother Raghunatha Rao asserted the Mahratta supremacy in Rajputana. This was followed by a number of victories in different parts of North India. By 1760 A. D. the Mahratta power reached its zenith.

The Third Battle of Panipat (1761 A. D.)

The expansion of the Mahratta power in North India brought the Mahrattas into conflict with Ahmad Shah Abdali who had already secured mastery over the Punjab. After entrusting the province to his officers, Abdali returned to his country. In his absence, the Mahrattas entered the Punjab and seized Lahore. This enraged Abdali and he set out at the head of a large force to chastise them. The Mahrattas organized a large force with Sadasiva Rao Bhao as their commander and the Peshwa's son Viswas Rao as his deputy. The army was joined by the Mahratta chiefs like Holkar, Sindhia, Gaekwar and others.

The two armies met at the historic battle-field of Panipat on 14 January 1761, and in the fierce fight that followed, the Mahrattas sustained a crushing defeat. The loss suffered by the Mahrattas was immense. Among the slain were Sadasiva Rao and Viswas Rao. The booty captured by the Afghans was beyond calculation. Unable to withstand the shock of the failure, the Peshwa breathed his last in 1761 A. D.

Results of the War

The battle produced far-reaching results. It checked the growth of the Mahratta power. The internal unity of the Mahratta empire began to disappear. The Peshwa no longer enjoyed that ascendancy which Baji Rao and Balaji Baji Rao had established. The subordinate principalities of Bhonsle, Sindhia, Holkar and Gaekwar became virtually independent units.

The most important result of the battle was that it helped the growth of the British power in India. The defeat suffered by the Mahrattas gave the rising British power a chance to strengthen and consolidate itself in India. The British established their ascendancy over the entire Gangetic valley from Bengal to Oudh. If the Mahrattas had won the battle, they would never have allowed the British to conquer Bengal and establish an empire in India.

Causes of the Mahratta failure.

The failure of the Mahrattas in the battle of Panipat in 1761 A. D. was the outcome of a variety of causes. Sadasiva Rao who led the Mahratta forces was obstinate and haughty, and was in no way a

match for Ahmad Shah Abdali who was the greatest Asiatic general of the time. The Afghan army was much larger and much better than the Mahratta army in equipment and discipline. The guerilla tactics alone would have been effective in fighting them. But Sadasiva Rao abandoned the guerilla tactics rejecting the advice given by other Mahratta leaders. He staked everything in entrenched warfare to which the Mahrattas were not accustomed to. The failure of Sadasiva Rao to maintain a line of communication with Delhi which was his base of supplies was a great mistake. This confronted the Mahrattas with an acute food problem while the Afghans received food supplies till the end. The Rajputs and the Sikhs remained as mere passive spectators of the tragedy at Panipat as the Mahrattas had alienated their sympathies by frequently raiding their territories. Balaji Baji Rao, the Peshwa, also was to be blamed for the failure of the Mahrattas. He was ignorant of the complicated politics of northern India, and dangers involved in a northern adventure. Hence, he did not do anything to prevent the developments which led to the catastrophe.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Sketch briefly the career and achievements of Shivaji.
2. Give a critical estimate of Shivaji's role in the rise of the Mahrattas.
3. Describe the administrative and military system of Shivaji.
4. Give an account of the achievements of the first three Peshwas.
5. Describe the causes and effects of the Third Battle of Panipat.
6. Narrate the circumstances leading to the Third Battle of Panipat.
7. Give a brief account of the relations of the Mahrattas with the Mughals from the time of Shivaji to that of the third Peshwa, Balaji Baji Rao.

Short-answer Type

1. What were the factors that helped the rise of Mahratta nationalism?
2. Why is Shivaji called a nation-builder?
3. What were the main features of the land revenue administration under Shivaji?

4. How did Balaji Viswanth become the virtual ruler of the Mahratta kingdom?

5. How did the Mahratta power reach the zenith of its glory under the second Peshwa Baji Rao I?

6. What was the Mahratta Confederacy? How did it cement the union among the Mahratta chieftains?

7. How did the Third Battle of Panipat prove disastrous to the Mahrattas?

8. Explain the causes of the failure of the Mahrattas in the Third Battle of Panipat.

Objective Type

A. *Name the following:*

(a) Mahratta saints who helped the rise of nationalism in Maharashtra.

(b) The parents of Shivaji.

(c) The leader of the army sent against Shivaji in 1659 A. D. by the Bijapur sultan.

(d) The general sent by Aurangzeb to suppress the Mahrattas in 1660 A. D.

(e) The treaty signed by Shivaji in 1665 A. D.

(f) The son of Shivaji executed by Aurangzeb.

(g) The first Peshwa.

(h) The commander of the Mahratta forces in the Third Battle of Panipat 1761 A. D.

B. *Match the following:*

- | A | B |
|--------------------|---|
| 1. Dadaji Kondadev | Rajaram's wife |
| 2. Javali | The second Peshwa |
| 3. Rajgarh | Sanghola Agreement |
| 4. Sambhaji | The administrator of Shivaji's Jagir who moulded the life of Shivaji. |
| 5. Tara Bai | Shivaji's son and successor. |
| 7. Baji Rao | The capital of Shivaji's kingdom |
| 8. Rama Raja | A small state captured by Shivaji |

Map Question

Indicate on the outline map provided the extent of the Mahratta empire under Shivaji.

CHAPTER XVI

Advent of the European Traders

The products of India were in great demand in Europe from time immemorial. Spices formed an important part of European trade with India. The trade between India and Europe was carried on both over the sea and by overland caravan routes through Constantinople. This trade was in the hands of the Arab Muslims. The trade went on smoothly as the Arab merchants mixed freely with the Christian merchants of Europe. The flourishing trade that was going on for centuries was, however, interrupted in the middle of the fifteenth century A. D. by the capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453 A. D. The Turks were also Muslims, but they did not allow the Christian merchants to come to Constantinople for trade. The merchants of the European countries found that they could no longer trade in Indian articles. There was, however, a great demand for Indian goods, especially spices and cloth. This demand was the main incentive for the nations of Europe to find a sea-route to India.

THE PORTUGUESE

Portugal and Spain sought a direct sea-route to India. Bartholomew Diaz, a Portuguese sailor, reached the cape of Good Hope in 1487 A. D. Columbus, a Genoese, discovered the New World in 1492 A. D. in a voyage planned to take him to India. Vasco da Gama, after rounding the African continent landed at Calicut on the south-west coast of India on 27 May 1498. To this Portuguese navigator belongs the credit of opening the sea-route to India and of establishing direct commercial contact between India and Europe. The Portuguese came to India primarily for trade. Simultaneously, they aimed at establishing their colonial empire and spreading Roman Catholicism.

Vasco da Gama received friendly treatment from the Zamorin, the ruler of Calicut. He collected information about the possibilities of trade in the south-west coast of India, known as Malabar, where they landed, and sailed back to Portugal with a large cargo in 1499 A. D. Next year Cabral arrived at Calicut from Portugal and established a factory there. His plan to drive out the Arab merchants from Malabar involved him in a quarrel with the Zamorin who favoured them. But the Rajah of Cochin, an enemy of the Zamorin, became a

friend of the Portuguese. Vasco da Gama returned to India in 1502 A. D. He established factories at Cannanore and Cochin, tried to terrorise the Arab merchants and left a small fleet to look after the Portuguese interest on the coast.

Francisco de Almeida (1505—1509 A. D.)

In 1505 A. D. the Portuguese decided to put their affairs in charge of a viceroy who would remain at Malabar for three years, and sent out Francisco de Almeida as the first viceroy. He built strong forts around the Portuguese settlements at Cochin and Cannanore. He did not have any plan of building a Portuguese land empire in India. His aim was to make Portugal strong on the seas in order to protect the interest of Portuguese commerce. He avoided annexation of territory as far as possible and confined Portuguese activity to trade and commerce. This policy of Almeida is known as the "Blue Water Policy." In 1508 A. D. he crushed the Zamorin's fleet and destroyed an Egyptian fleet next year. Almeida succeeded in crushing completely the Arab power in Indian Ocean. Portugal became supreme in eastern waters.

Alfonso de Albuquerque (1509—1515 A. D.)

De Almeida was succeeded by Albuquerque. He felt that the Portuguese power based on alliances with the Indian princes and on their naval power alone would not last. He, therefore, gave up the naval policy of his predecessor and attempted to found a land empire in India by territorial conquests and colonisation.

In 1510 A. D. he conquered Goa from the Sultan of Bijapur and made it the headquarters of the Portuguese empire in the East. In 1511 A. D. he captured Malacca from the ruler of Malaya and 1515 A. D. he established the Portuguese authority over Ormuz in the Persian Gulf. As a result of these conquests, the Portuguese became an imperial power in the East.

Albuquerque understood that a dominion founded on conquests alone could not last. He wanted a loyal population in the conquered territories to support the Portuguese authority. For the creation of such a loyal population, he founded mixed colonies by encouraging inter-marriages of the Portuguese with the natives.

Albuquerque also worked out a good system of government in the Portuguese possessions in India. He retained native institutions as far as possible and employed Hindus in administrative service. He enlisted Indians in his army and gave them western drill and training. He also established schools. He issued an order abolishing the practice of *Sati*. As a result of these reforms, the Portuguese administration in India became liberal and enlightened.

Albuquerque was, no doubt, the greatest of the Portuguese viceroys in India. His scheme of mixed colonies failed miserably. In spite of this failure, Albuquerque deserves to be regarded as the greatest of the Portuguese viceroys in the East.

The successors of Albuquerque followed his policy of expansion throughout the sixteenth century A. D. They added Diu, Daman, Salsette, Bassein, Chaul and Bombay in western India, San Thome near Madras, and Hughli in Bengal to their possessions. They could not, however, exercise as much political power in India as was wielded by Albuquerque. But they had a monopoly of trade between India and Europe for nearly one hundred years. They were not able to retain their power and trade monopoly for a long time. Before long, the Portuguese empire was conquered by the English and the Dutch. However, the Portuguese still lingered in Goa, Daman and Diu. After all attempts to secure their integration with independent India having failed, in December 1961 the defence forces of India moved into Goa, Daman and Diu, and effected their union with India.

Causes of the Early Success

During the sixteenth century A. D., Portugal was free from competition from other European nations in establishing her colonies in the East. In 1493 A. D. Pope Alexander VI had issued a bull giving the right of trading with the eastern countries including India exclusively to Portugal. The rulers of the Malabar coast cordially received the Portuguese traders as the stability of their economies very much depended upon foreign trade. The Malabar coast at this time was divided into a number of small kingdoms. The mutual rivalry between the rulers of Calicut and Cochin helped the Portuguese cause. The Rajah of Cochin became a puppet in the hands of the Portuguese while the Zamorin of Calicut was severely beaten in his encounter with the Portuguese. The rulers of Vijayanagar extended unqualified support to the Portuguese because of the hostility towards Muslims which the two powers had in common. They did not realize the dangers involved in the colonisation of India by the Portuguese. Albuquerque, who guided the destinies of the Portuguese for a period of six years in the initial stage, was an administrator of outstanding capabilities. All these factors contributed to the success of the Portuguese in the early stages.

Causes of the Decline

Although the Portuguese were successful in the early stages in establishing their power in India, in less than a century they lost their position in India. A variety of causes contributed to this state of affairs.

Portugal was a small country and her man-power resources were limited. However, they undertook the two big projects of occupying Brazil and acquiring Indian territories at the same time. They found it impossible to maintain their power in two continents. Ultimately, they preferred Brazil to their Indian possessions and consolidated their position in the former.

Portuguese administration in India had broken down in course of time. The Portuguese officers in India became corrupt, greedy and unscrupulous. The Portuguese government in India was always bankrupt. The Portuguese officers were under-paid and they resorted to unfair means to increase their income. The authorities in Portugal sold posts in India in auction to the highest bidders. Portuguese young men were offered appointments in India even as dowries. The Portuguese governors brought to India their relatives and appointed them to high offices. The mixed colony system introduced by Albuquerque did not work well. It only produced a race of Portuguese half-breeds who possessed only the evil qualities of both races. The religious intolerance of the Portuguese and their forcible conversion of people to Catholicism were opposed by the native population. Their proselytising activities in Bengal were severely punished by Shah Jahan in 1631 A. D.

With the decline of the Vijayanagar kingdom after the battle of Talikkotta in 1565 A. D. the Portuguese lost their biggest supporters in India. The Muslim sultanates of the Deccan and the Mahrattas were determined to destroy their power. The rise of the powerful Mughal empire in Delhi and its expansion into the Deccan adversely affected the Portuguese interests in India.

In 1580 A. D. Spain annexed Portugal and this hastened the fall of the Portuguese power in the East. Portugal became involved in all the wars waged by Spain. The rulers of Spain ignored the interests abroad.

The Portuguese empire depended very much on its naval power. The Portuguese preserved their naval superiority in the early stages. However, by 1600 A. D., they had to confront the rivalry of the Dutch and British navies. The Dutch captured Amboyna in the East Indies from the Portuguese in 1605 A. D. The British defeated them at Surat in 1612 A. D. The Dutch led the attack on Goa in 1639 A. D. and captured Ceylon from the Portuguese in 1658 A. D.

Contributions of the Portuguese:

The Portuguese brought to India various European luxury goods like woollen clothes, and mirrors. They also introduced into India the cultivation of tobacco, maize and potato. A Portuguese scholar, Garcia da Orta, wrote a book on the medicinal plants of India. The Portuguese introduced printing in India and popularised

the bungalow type of building on the Malabar coast. But their most permanent work was in the field of religion. Missionaries who came to India from Portugal gained a large following for Christianity. Francis Xavier, a member of the Jesuit Order, preached Christianity in various parts of India and gained numerous converts. Alexis de Menzes, a Portuguese bishop, who came to India convened the famous Synod of Diamper in 1599 A. D. He succeeded in bringing the majority of the ancient Christians of Malabar into the Church of Rome. Some of the Jesuit missionaries who came from Portugal took part in the religious discussions arranged by Akbar. The Portuguese built churches in India after the Portuguese style. The Portuguese also helped to increase the trade between India and Europe.

THE DUTCH IN INDIA

The Portuguese monopoly of the eastern commerce excited the jealousy of many European nations. A new spirit of liberty and nationality dominated the Dutch mind in the sixteenth century A. D. With a view to capture the eastern trade, a group of merchants at Amsterdam started a Dutch Company in 1592 A. D. The success of this venture encouraged others to start many more companies. In 1602 A. D., the "United East India Company of the Netherlands" was formed, amalgamating all the former companies.

The Dutch at first concentrated their attention on the East Indies, and forced the chiefs of the islands of the East Indies to accept the supremacy of Holland. They built factories and fortresses at Amboyna, Batavia, and Malacca. Meanwhile the English also had entered the field. In the early years, the British and the Dutch Companies were on cordial relations. However, in 1623 A. D., the Dutch governor ordered the massacre of ten English merchants on a false charge of conspiracy at Amboyna. Now the English gave up all hopes of the East Indies and concentrated their attention on India.

In India the Dutch established their sway rapidly for some time. They entered into a treaty with the Zamorin of Calicut in 1604 A. D. The Zamorin permitted the Dutch to carry on trade at Calicut and to build a fort for the protection of their trade interests. In 1605 A. D. they set up a factory at Masulipatnam. In 1609 A. D. a factory was put up at Pulicat. In 1617 A. D. they established a factory at Surat. In 1659 A. D. a Dutch factory arose at Nagappattinam.

The Dutch desired to expel the Portuguese from the Malabar coast. After establishing their power securely in Ceylon, they launched an attack on the Portuguese in the Malabar coast in 1661 A. D. and captured Quilon and Cranganore. They seized the Cochin fort in 1663 A. D. Now the Rajah of Cochin became a vassal of

the Dutch. From Cochin the Dutch turned towards Travancore. First they established themselves at Colachal and from there moved towards the south. However the rise of Travancore under Marthanda Varma (1720—1758 A. D.) destroyed the Dutch power. Travancore forces under Marthanda Varma inflicted a crushing defeat on the Dutch in the battle of Colachal in 1741 A. D. This was followed by Dutch failure in other parts of India also. The Dutch were finally forced to surrender all their possessions in India to the British. Robert Clive, the brave English Captain, took Chinsura from the Dutch in 1759 A. D., and between that year and 1811 A. D. they were gradually stripped of all their possessions.

Causes of the Initial Success

The Dutch were astonishingly successful in the early stages of their operations in the East. This was the result of the national character of the Dutch enterprise. The Dutch Company was a national venture. The commercial policy of the Dutch was vigorous as the people were a mercantile and maritime people. The Dutch were practical men and almost from the beginning they had a clear conception of their objectives, and their methods were best suited to the success of their commercial and imperial policy.

When the Dutch began their activities in India, there were no indigenous powers strong enough to check their progress while at the same time they appeared to the natives as their deliverers from Portuguese oppression and misrule. Portugal, which had been so far powerful in the East, was in a decadent condition. The English opposition also was not strong in the early stages.

Thus, the great qualities of the Dutch coupled with favourable circumstances enabled them to spread their influence in the East and command the commerce for some time.

Causes of the Dutch Failure

In spite of the early success of the Dutch, they failed to establish themselves permanently in India. The Dutch power in India collapsed because they were more interested in the East Indies than in India. They considered the Indian stations only as feeder posts.

The wars of the Dutch with the English and the French during the second half of the seventeenth century A. D. drained away their resources and weakened the naval strength of Holland. Their naval power in the eighteenth century was weak and quite inadequate to strengthen their position in India where the French and the English were establishing themselves. The rise of the British particularly proved fatal to the Dutch.

The connection between the Dutch government and the company was very close, and this was a source of weakness for the company.

Whenever there was financial trouble, the government at home freely appropriated the wealth of the company.

Above all, Holland was a small country with limited resources. So she could not afford to wage costly wars with her European rivals like the English in the efforts to build up and maintain an extensive empire in the East.

Contributions of the Dutch

Although the Dutch presence on the Malabar coast lasted only for a short while, they contributed much to the economic prosperity of the land. As a result of the arrival of the Dutch traders, there was a great revival of trade in Malabar. Ports like Calicut and Cochin once again became scenes of brisk activity. The Dutch introduced new agricultural products and thereby improved agriculture. They began the scientific cultivation of coconut and rice on a large scale. The Dutch also began industries like salt manufacture and dyeing.

As the Dutch were interested only in trade, they did not found educational institutions, and they never indulged in forcible conversion or religious persecution. The Dutch were shrewd observers. The *memoirs* and letters left behind by them form a very important source of information regarding their settlements in India. Also a work on the Indian Botany was compiled known as *Hortus Malabaricus* under the personal supervision of the Dutch governor Van Rheede. This may be regarded, perhaps, as their most permanent contribution to India.

THE ENGLISH

The English were also keenly interested in establishing their trade with India. In 1600 A. D. some English merchants formed themselves into a company to trade with India. They obtained a charter from Queen Elizabeth, the ruler of England, and named their company the English East India Company.

The English established their first trade centre at Surat in 1614 A. D. Sir Thomas Roe came to Jahangir's court as the accredited ambassador of James I in 1615 A. D. With his efforts, the Company was able to get permission to set up factories (trade centres) in several towns of India. The Company established factories in Ahamadabad, Broach and Agra. The English set up their factories in Calicut and Masulipatnam also. In 1639 A. D. they bought some land from the ruler of Chandragiri on the eastern coast of India and laid the foundation of the modern city of Madras. Three years later, they built a fort there and named it Fort St. George. This became the headquarters of the English settlements in India. In 1661 A. D., Charles II the ruler of England, gave permission to the Company to issue coins,

to build forts, to maintain an army for protection, and to declare war or peace when the necessity arose. In 1668 A. D., Charles II transferred to the Company the island of Bombay which had been given by the King of Portugal to Charles II's queen as part of her dowry. In 1690 A. D. the Mughal emperor Aurangzeb gave permission to the English Company to trade in Bengal free of all duties in return for Rs. 3000 a year. The same year, the English established a settlement in Hugly which, later on, developed into the modern city of Calcutta. Six years later, they built a fort there, which they named Fort William after king William III. The progress of the English East India Company was very rapid during the eighteenth century A. D. It got rid of all its European rivals and also succeeded in establishing British rule in India.

THE FRENCH

Following the example of other European countries, the French also tried to establish their trade with India and the East Indies. Their early efforts date from 1604 A. D., but they all failed. It was only in 1664 A. D. that they succeed in forming a company for eastern trade. The company known as the French East India Company was formed at the instance of the well-known minister, Colbert, in the reign of Louis XIV. Unlike the English Company, which represented private commercial enterprise, the French Company was created, financed, and controlled by the State. The Company established factories at Surat (1668 A. D.) and Masulipatnam. The foundation of Pondicherry was laid in 1673 A. D. Pondicherry became the capital of French settlements in India. A French factory was established at Chandranagar near Calcutta in 1690—92 A. D. Later, Mahe was occupied in 1725 A. D. and Karaikal in 1739 A. D.

ANGLO-FRENCH CONFLICT IN SOUTH INDIA

In the beginning of the eighteenth century A. D., only two European Companies, the English and the French, were actively engaged in the Indian trade. These trading Companies and their home governments had no plans of territorial conquests in India during this period. Gradually, however, the character and aim of both the Companies changed. They began to cherish territorial ambitions. The two companies vied with each other in securing trade concessions from the quarrelsome States of South India. They found that territorial gains could be secured by involving themselves in the quarrels of these States. There ensued a deadly struggle between these two Companies for commercial and colonial supremacy in India. The rivalry between the English and the French resulted in three wars known as the Karnatak wars.

The First Karnatak War (1746—1748 A. D.)

The appointment of Duplex in 1740 A. D. as the governor of the French settlements in India intensified the rivalry between the English and the French in India. Duplex desired to destroy the English power in India. It was at this time that the War of Austrian succession broke out in Europe in 1740 A. D. between Prussia and Austria. In this war England and France took opposite sides. France supported Prussia and England joined the side of Austria. Any conflict that broke out between England and France in Europe would produce its repercussions in Asia and America. The First Karnatak war was the extension of the War of Austrian Succession to the Indian soil.

Troubles began in 1746 A. D. when an English fleet appeared in the Coromandal Coast and threatened Pondicherry. Duplex, the French governor, appealed to Anwar-ud-din, the Nawab of Karnatak to force the English to observe the neutrality of the Mughal empire. The English squadron had to sail away from the coast without attacking Pondicherry. Pondicherry being thus rendered secure from attack, a French fleet under La Bourdonnais attacked and captured Madras, and left it in the hands of Duplex. The Nawab sent an army to enforce his order and to compel Duplex to cede Madras to him. The Nawab's forces were defeated by the French at Adayar and he had to make peace with Duplex. This was the first occasion when the superiority of the well-trained and well-equipped European army over the Indian army was proved beyond doubt. An attempt made by Duplex to capture Fort St. David was foiled and a British attack on Pondicherry was repulsed. Meanwhile, the war of Austrian succession ended in Europe by the treaty of Aix la-chapelle. The treaty provided for the restoration of Madras to the English. Duplex's prestige, however, stood high.

The Second Karnatak War (1749—1754 A. D.)

Duplex lost his first opportunity to destroy the British. But he was not disheartened and looked forward to another occasion. The occasion came when succession disputes arose in Hyderabad and the Karnatak.

In 1748 A. D. Asaf Jah Nizam-ul-mulk of Hyderabad died. The vacant throne was claimed by his second son, Nasir Jang, and his grandson, Muzaffar Jang. In the Karnatak Chanda Sahib, the son-in-law of a former Nawab, contested the claim of Anwar-ud-din who had been appointed by the late Nizam, Asaf Jha. In Hyderabad, Muzaffar Jang sought French support in his contest with Nasir Jang. As against this, Nasir Jang asked for British help. In the Karnatak Chanda Sahib allied himself with Duplex to achieve his purpose.

Dupleix and his allies won a decisive victory over Anwar-ud-din and killed him at Ambur near Vellore. Muzaffar Jang declared himself as the Subalidar of Hyderabad and proclaimed Chanda Sahib as his vassal at Arcot. Muhammad Ali, an illegitimate son of Anwar-ud-din, escaped to Trichinopoly and appealed to the British for help. In Hyderabad Nasir Jang was assassinated and Dupleix's candidate Muzaffar Jang came to the throne. Thus, the French succeeded in placing their own nominees on the thrones of Hyderabad and the Karnatak. Dupleix was appointed by the Nizam as the Viceroy of the region. A French army under General Bussy was stationed at Hyderabad. It seemed as though French power in India was firmly established. After a short while, Muzaffar Jang was killed in a skirmish, but the French General Bussy placed his own nominee, Salabat Jang, on the throne, and thus maintained French influence in the Deccan.

Now the English realized that the rising influence of the French would go against their trade. So, the English decided to send their troops to relieve Trichinopoly in response to Muhammad Ali's call for help. At this juncture, a gifted young man, Robert Clive, appeared on the Indian scene. Robert Clive had come to Madras as a clerk in the service of the English East India Company. He had no interest in his clerical job. So he became a soldier. Soon he was promoted as an officer in the army. The task of relieving Trichinopoly was entrusted to Robert Clive. Instead of going to Trichinopoly, he marched on to Arcot, the capital of the Karnatak, and captured it. When Chanda Sahib, who was away from Trichinopoly, heard that his capital had been taken, he immediately abandoned the siege of Trichinopoly and rushed back to Arcot. With the help of more troops from Madras, Clive defeated Chanda Sahib and helped Muhammad Ali to become the Nawab of the Karnatak.

The success of the English under Clive was a great blow to Dupleix's ambition to establish French supremacy in South India. He was able to establish French influence in Hyderabad only. He, however, still hoped to establish French influence in the Karnatak as well. In the meantime, the French government recalled him as it did not approve of his plans of establishing French rule in India by continuous warfare. His successor Godehe concluded a treaty with the English in 1755 A. D., by which both the companies agreed not to interfere in the quarrels of the Indian rulers. Dupleix died in poverty in 1763 A. D.

The Third Karnatak War (1756—1763) A. D.

War began again between the English and the French in India when the Seven Years' War broke out in Europe between England and France. The English took the Northern Sarkars and Masulipatnam from the French. Northern Sarkars had been given to the French by the new Nizam Salabat Jang, to meet the cost of the French

army which he maintained for his protection at Hyderabad. Salabat Jang now came under English protection and gave the Northern Sarkars to the English. Now the French forces commanded by Count-de-Lally launched an attack on Madras. But Madras was well-protected and Lally was forced to retire to Pondicherry. In 1760 A. D. the French forces under Lally were decisively beaten by Sir Eyre Coote at Wandiwash. In 1761 A. D. the English captured Pondicherry and this marked final defeat of the French. The Seven Years' War came to a close in 1763 A. D. by the Peace of Paris. Pondicherry and other French possessions in India were given back to them on the condition that they would not fortify them. The French power in India was thus broken and the Anglo-French conflict in South India ended in the success of the English East India Company and the failure of the French Company.

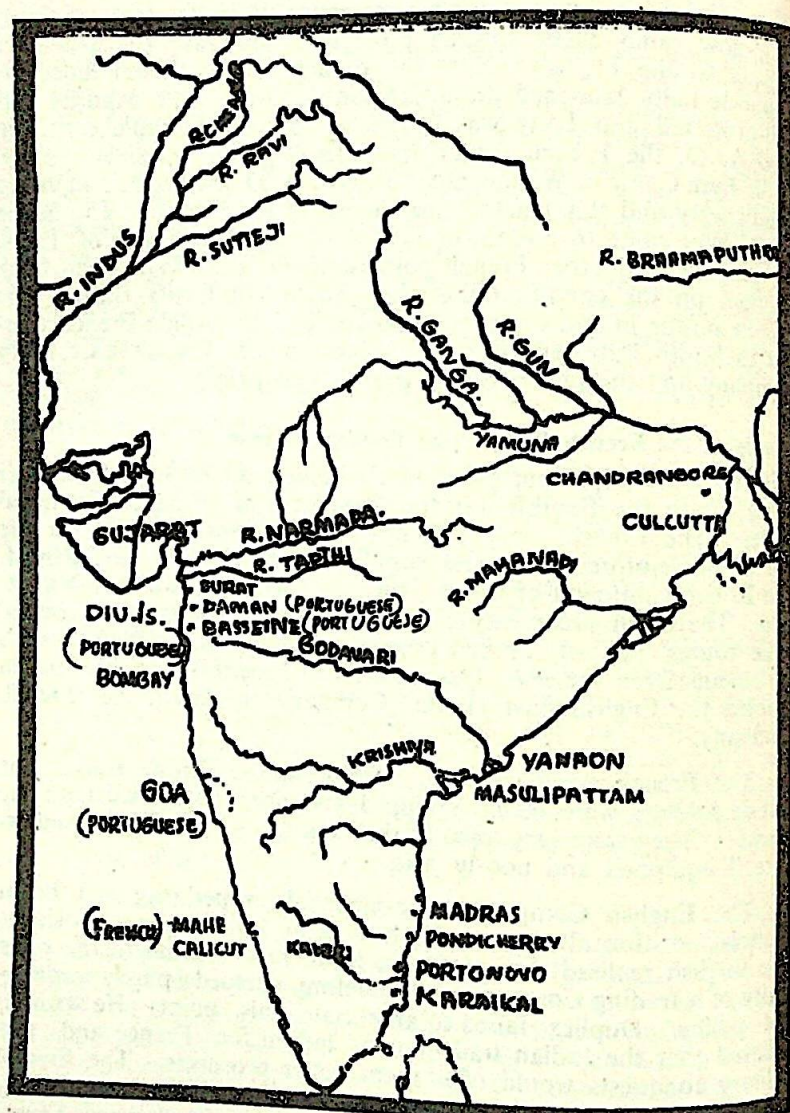
Causes of the French Failure and English Success

The most important cause of the failure of the French in their conflict with the English was the weakness of France as a naval power. The French navy was not strong enough to obstruct the arrival of reinforcements and supplies from England and Bengal. The British command of the sea, on the other hand, was unquestionable. The naval superiority of Britain helped the English to control trade routes cut off French communications, and attack French settlements from the sea. Thus, the naval superiority of the English enabled the English East India Company to defeat the French Company.

The French army was also inferior to the British army. The British soldiers were better equipped and more disciplined than the French. They were very loyal to their masters. The French soldiers were ill-equipped and poorly paid.

The English Company's commercial superiority and better financial position always placed them in an advantageous position. The English realised that profitable trade was essential to the prosperity of a trading Company, and therefore, pursued a purely commercial policy. Dupleix failed to appreciate this point. He wrongly believed that the Indian trade was a failure for France and that military conquests would offer them better prospects. The English did not have to worry about finances as the English in Bengal could send to other places both troops and money in critical times. France during this period was in financial difficulties and, therefore, the French government was not in a position to help their agents in India. The bold projects of Dupleix failed on account of the lack of financial backing from the home government.

In regard to organization also, the English Company was superior to the French Company. It was a vigorous private corporation with freedom to manage its own affairs. Instead of depending on



Early European Settlements upto 1757 A. D.

State support, it had long been a creditor to the government for large sums. The French Company was a subordinate department of government, and all powers were in the hands of royal deputies. The French people were indifferent to the fortunes of the Company, and even the proprietors took no interest as the government had given them a guarantee for interest on the capital invested by them.

In military strength the English and the French were balanced. But in generalship the English were at an advantage. Robert Clive, for instance, was a man of exceptional military talents and capacity for leadership. The French also had some eminent men. But they did not receive the unqualified support of their government and subordinates. Dupleix, for instance, was ill-served by his country and subordinates. There were personal quarrels among the representatives of France in India which also ruined their chances of success. There was also lack of co-operation between the French generals and admirals. The army and navy of the English, on the other hand, always worked in close cooperation.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Trace the rise and fall of the Portuguese in India.
2. Account for the early success of the Portuguese and their final fall.
3. Give an account of the establishment of the Dutch, the French and the English settlements in India.
4. Give an account of the achievements and failures of Dupleix in India.
5. How did the English acquire the Karnatak?
6. Describe the Anglo-French struggle for supremacy in the Karnatak. Account for the success of the English.
7. Explain why the French failed to establish their power in India.

Short-answer Type

1. Give a brief account of the 'Blue Water Policy' of Francisco de Almeida.
2. Point out of the achievements of Albuquerque as the Portuguese viceroy in India.
3. Explain why the Dutch failed to establish an empire in India.

Objective Type

A. Name the following:

- (a) The Portuguese navigator who landed at Calicut in 1498 A. D.
- (b) The first Portuguese viceroy in India.
- (c) The greatest of the Portuguese viceroys in India.

- (d) The place where ten English merchants were massacred at the orders of the Dutch governor.
- (c) The queen who granted a charter to a few English merchants to trade with India.
- (f) The island given by Charles II to the English Company in 1668 A. D.
- (g) The French governor when war broke out between the English and the French in the Karnatak.
- (h) The place where French forces under Count-de-Lally were defeated by Sir Eyre Coote.

B. Match the following

A	B
1. Turks	Cape of Good Hope
2. Bartholomew Diaz	Mixed colony system
3. Francisco de Almeida	Constantinople
4. Albuquerque	Blue water policy
5. Dutch power	Treaty of Aix la Chapelle
6. First Karnatak war	Battle of Colachal
7. Muhammad Ali	Peace of Paris
8. Seven Year's War	Siege of Trichinopoly

Map Question:

Mark on the outline map provided early European settlements upto 1757 A. D.

CHAPTER XVII

The British Conquest of Bengal

Bengal was the base from where the British developed their power in India. It was the richest and the most fertile province of the Mughal empire. The province of Bengal included Bihar and Orissa as well, and was ruled by a Nawab (Subahdar) appointed by the Mughal emperor. From 1719 A. D. Bengal may be said to have enjoyed substantial autonomy. Under Alivardi Khan who was the Nawab of Bengal from 1740 to 1756 A. D., Bengal became virtually independent of the Mughal empire.

The East India Company secured valuable privileges for trade in Bengal from the Mughal emperors. The Company first established a factory in Bengal in the year 1650-51. A flourishing trade soon developed. In 1690 A. D. the Company got permission from Aurangzeb to build a factory on the site of Calcutta. In 1696 A. D. a fort was built at that place. In 1700 A. D. Calcutta was raised to be a Presidency under the name of Fort William. Since then, the British in Bengal grew up steadily in strength and prosperity.

Alivardi Khan viewed with some suspicion the growing power of the English. But he did not trouble or oppress the English settlements in his dominions. His grandson, Siraj-ud-daula, who succeeded him in 1756 A. D. was suspicious of the designs of the English. He was afraid that they would try to become masters of Bengal as they had become masters of the Karnatak. In 1756 A. D. both the English and the French strengthened their fortifications in Bengal as the Seven Years' War had broken out in Europe, and they feared an attack from each other. The Nawab asked each of them to demolish the new structures. The French carried out his order, but the English gave an evasive reply. The Nawab got annoyed. He seized the English factory at Kazimbazar, marched upon Calcutta and captured it. The English prisoners, 146 in number, it is alleged, were confined in a small room for the night and in the morning it was found that only 23 survived. This incident is known as the Black Hole Tragedy. However, most historians are inclined to reject the whole story of this incident as unhistorical.

CLIVE IN BENGAL

When the news of the surrender of Calcutta reached Madras, the Governor of Madras, Mr. Clive, and the Deputy

Governor of Fort St. David, at the head of an army to Bengal. A fleet also was sent to Bengal under Admiral Watson to assist Clive. In January 1757 Clive re-occupied Calcutta and compelled Siraj-ud-daulah to restore all the privileges and possessions of the Company, and to raise no objections to the fortification of Calcutta. The Nawab agreed to the demands of Clive, but he sought the help of the French at Chandranagar to drive out the English from Bengal. Clive at once attacked Chandranagar and took possession of it. Now Clive was ready to deal with the Nawab. meanwhile, Clive received a message from Mir Jafar, the Commander-in-Chief of the Nawab's forces, that he would grant valuable privileges to the English, if they helped him to dethrone Siraj-ud-daulah and made him Nawab of Bengal. He entered into a conspiracy with Mir Jafar who told Clive that if he attacked the Nawab, he would not fight for Siraj-ud-daulah, but would join the English with a large army. Clive decided to take advantage of this opportunity in order to establish British influence in Bengal.

The Battle of Plassey

Clive marched towards Murshidabad, the capital city of the province of Bengal, at the head of a small army. Siraj-ud-daulah met him at Plassey, a village near Murshidabad. When the battle began on 23 June 1757 the great part of the Nawab's forces commanded by Mir Jafar never came into action. Siraj was completely defeated. He tried to escape from the battle-field, but was caught and beheaded. Clive made Mir Jafar the Nawab of Bengal. Mir Jafar gave large presents to Clive and also ceded to the English the territory known as the "Twenty-four Parganas." The Company also got the right to coin money besides other privileges of free trade in Bengal.

The battle of Plassey paved the way for the conquest of India by the English. The battle made the English supreme in Bengal as the Nawab Mir Jafar was a puppet in the hands of Clive who was the real power behind the throne. The vast resources of Bengal enabled the English to defeat their serious European rivals, the French in the South and also the Dutch in Bengal. Above all, the Company became the king-maker in Bengal and exercised this power with such skill that before long it became the dominant power in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa.

Clive's First Governorship of Bengal (1758—1760 A. D.)

Soon after the battle of Plassey, the Calcutta Council invited Clive to act as the governor of Bengal till a permanent arrangement was made. In the middle of 1758 A. D. the Company appointed Clive to the post of Governor of Fort William in Bengal. As governor, Clive was called upon to repel an invasion of Bihar launched by Prince Ali Gauhar (later Shah Alam II) in 1759 A. D. the eldest son

of Alamgir II. Clive successfully repulsed his invasion and consolidated the authority of Mir Jafar. The Nawab expressed his gratitude by proclaiming the 'Twenty-four Parganas' as the personal jagir of Clive. Shortly afterwards, Clive contrived to strike down the Dutch, the only remaining European rival power. Clive obstructed Dutch trade in salt-petre. Thereupon, the Dutch asked for re-inforcements from Batavia and intrigued with the unfaithful Mir Jafar. Before the Dutch squadron from Java could reach Bengal Clive acted. He defeated the Dutch and occupied Chinsura. Thus he frustrated the designs of the Dutch and cleared the path for the British ascendancy in Bengal. While the Third Karnatak War broke out in the South, Clive remained in Bengal, but helped in driving out the French from the Northern Circars. In 1760 A. D., for reasons of health, Clive returned to England. Thus ended the first governorship of Clive in Bengal.

Mir Kasim

In the absence of Clive the English exploited the internal trade of Bengal to their own advantage. The Nawab's treasury became empty. Mir Jafar was old and weak, and utterly unable to manage his affairs and Bengal fell into a state of anarchy and misery. He had promised to pay a large sum of money to the Company, but even after three years of his accession to the throne of Bengal, he did not pay the money. The English, therefore, deposed him in 1760 A. D. and placed his son-in-law, Mir Kasim, on the throne. The English promised military aid to the new Nawab, and obtained from him a grant of three districts, Burdwan, Midnapore, and Chittagong yielding about fifty lakhs of rupees a year towards the expenses of the British troops. The Nawab was also compelled to make large presents amounting to thirty lakhs of rupees to the English officials.

Mir Kasim was a ruler of considerable administrative ability. He soon realised that the English desired him to be a puppet in their hands, and resented the control exercised by the English. He wanted to exert his authority and improve the financial condition of his kingdom. He shifted the capital from Murshidabad to Monghyr to keep himself away from the British control. He also got his army trained on European lines. He found that the servants of the Company were abusing the right of free trade granted to the Company by indulging in private trade. They also had sold the right to the Indian traders whose goods were also exempted from taxes. Mir Kasim tried to stop these abuses, and when he failed to do so, he abolished all duties. The English resented this step as they had lost their special advantage by this measure. Soon, war broke out between the English and the Nawab. Mir Kasim was defeated and deposed, and Mir Jafar was once again made Nawab in July 1763.

Mir Kasim fled to Oudh and entered into an alliance with the Mughal emperor Shah Alam and Shuja-ud-daula, the Nawab of Oudh. The three marched together towards Patna with their combined forces of about, 50,000 soldiers. The English met them at Buxar with a small force of about 7,000 soldiers and 20 guns under the command of Major Munro on 25 October 1764. The allies were defeated in the battle. Shuja-ud-daula fled to the Rohilla country. Shah Alam came over to the English. Mir Kasim fled to the north-west where he died in obscurity.

This victory of the English in the battle of Buxar was of great importance to the future course of British power in Bengal. Politically, Buxar was more decisive than Plassey. Munro's victory completed the process which had begun with Clive's victory. It ensured the firm establishment of British supremacy in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa.

In February 1765 Mir Jafar died and Najim-ud-daula, Mir Jafar's son, was allowed to succeed on condition that he would leave the administration in the hands of a minister called Deputy Nawab to be nominated and controlled by the English. The new ruler was compelled to make handsome presents to the governor and his colleagues. The Nawab was reduced to the position of a mere figure-head and the control of the administration passed into the hands of the English.

Clive's Second Governorship of Bengal (1765—1767 A. D.)

The directors of the Company viewed with grave concern the happenings in Bengal culminating in the battle of Buxar. Clive who was then in England was then sent back to India as governor of Bengal in order to settle matters.

The Treaty of Allahabad, 1765 A. D.

Clive's first task was to effect a settlement of the political problems created by the English victory at Buxar. He had to deal with the Mughal emperor, the Nawab Wazir of Oudh, and the Nawab of Bengal. This he did by the treaty of Allahabad concluded in 1765 A. D. By the terms of this treaty, Shuja-ud-daula, the Nawab Wazir of Oudh was re-instited in his territories with the exception of the districts of Kora and Allahabad. In return, the Nawab Wazir was to pay to the Company the sum of fifty lakhs of rupees as war indemnity and to enter into a defensive alliance with the Company. Shah Alam, the Mughal emperor, was given the districts of Kora and Allahabad. Clive secured from the Mughal emperor a *farran* granting the East India Company the *Diwani* of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, promising in return to remit regularly the sum of twenty-six lakhs of rupees as royal revenue.

The Double Government

The East India Company, as a result of the arrangements mentioned above, became the virtual master of Bengal. The Nawab or the Subahdar of Bengal, as viceroy of the Mughal empire, exercised two functions: (1) the *Diwani* i. e., revenue and civil justice; (2) and the *Nizamat*, i. e., military power and criminal justice. In February 1765 the Nawab practically had granted the *Nizamat* to the Company, and in August 1765 the Emperor ceded to them the *Diwani*. But Clive was not prepared to exercise all the rights of sovereignty conferred upon the Company. The Company controlled the foreign policy, army and the treasury, but the duties of collecting revenue and administering justice were entrusted to the native officers of the Nawab, appointed with the approval of the Company. The Nawab was to receive fifty three lakhs of rupees. This joint exercise of power by the Company and the servants of the Nawab is called the Dual System or the Double Government.

The Double Government stabilized the position of the English. The system secured for the Company effective and legitimate power in Bengal without alarming the Company's enemies, foreign and domestic. Clive did not want the system or the personnel of the administration to be suddenly changed. He knew that the English servants of the Company were too few to take up the entire work of government; and besides, they lacked the necessary training, knowledge, and experience for the task. If the Company had taken over all the powers of the Nawab, it would have roused the jealousy of the French and the Dutch. The Double Government represented a transitional stage between the acquisition of power and assumption of administration. However, the Double Government involved the unfortunate divorce of power from responsibility. The Company wielded the sword and controlled the purse to protect itself from internal and external enemies, but took no steps to ensure the welfare of the people by shielding them from official oppression. The settlement only sanctioned the continuance of the corrupt rule that marked the Nawab's days.

Administrative Reforms

Clive introduced a number of reforms in the Company's civil and military services. He first of all forced the Company's servants to subscribe to the covenant against the receipt of presents. He wanted to abolish completely the evil practice of private trade by the Company officials. But he could not do it as the directors of the Company would not agree to any increase in the pay of the officials. So he attempted to limit and regularise the existing practice by granting a monopoly of trade in salt to the superior servants of the Company. Though these arrangements were the best that Clive could do at that time, they were severely criticized by the home authorities and resented by the civil employees of the Company.

Clive abolished the system of Double Batta or field allowance of military officers drawn even in time of peace. Organized opposition on the part of the military officers to this plan was firmly suppressed. Clive re-organized the Bengal army and improved its tone. He also instituted a fund for the relief of disabled officers and the widows of those who died in service.

Clive returned to England in 1767 A. D. on account of ill-health. The enemies of Clive persuaded the House of Commons to institute an enquiry into his conduct and acts in 1772 A. D. The House of Commons resolved that Clive, in the acquisition of his wealth, had abused the powers with which he had been entrusted. But the House would not pass a censure against him. It finally passed a resolution that he had rendered great and meritorious services to the country. Worn out with humiliation of spirit and disease, Clive committed suicide in 1774 A. D.

An Estimate of Clive

Robert Clive may justly be regarded as the founder of the British dominion in India. He saved the English from the trap which had been laid for them by Dupliex in the Karnatak by his siege of Arcot. He made the English East India Company the virtual master of Bengal by his conspiracy with Mir Jafar and the battle of Plassey. He ensured and legalised the military victory gained at Plassey by securing the *Diwani* from the Mughal emperor. He proved his worth as a capable administrator during his second governorship in Bengal. But he had certain weaknesses. He was greedy, dishonest and unscrupulous. In the words of Sardar K. M. Panikkar, Clive was "a gangster who achieved glory, a forgerer, a liar and a cheat." The State he founded was a 'robber state' which looted and oppressed its people. The defects in the character of Clive neutralised his virtues and decreased the value of his work.

WARREN HASTINGS (1772—1785 A. D.)

The years 1767—1772 in Bengal were covered by the governorships of Verelst and Cartier. Their terms were marked by no important administrative change. Instead, there was a gradual revival of the abuses which Clive had sought to repress. In 1772 A. D. Warren Hastings was selected to succeed Cartier as governor of Bengal.

Early Career

Warren Hastings entered the service of the East India Company as a writer at the early age of eighteen. Soon after, he was appointed as Resident of Kazimbazar where he proved himself an able officer. In 1761 A. D. he became a member of the Calcutta Council. He went home in 1764 A. D. and after five years, came back as a member

of the Council of Madras. It was from here that he was called upon to become the governor of Bengal.

Warren Hastings as Governor of Bengal

When Warren Hastings was appointed governor in April 1772, he had practically to evolve order out of chaos. The Double Government had proved a failure, and all the old forms of corruption had crept in again. The English servants of the Company had monopolised the trade of the country, while their native agents who collected the revenue oppressed the people. Besides this misgovernment, there were dangers arising from the revival of the power of the Mahrattas and the rise of Haidar Ali in Mysore.

Revenue Reforms

Warren Hastings first turned to the question of settling the revenue. He put an end to the system of Double Government established by Clive, and brought the revenue administration under the direct management of the Company. In other words, "the Company stood forth as diwan." The posts of Deputy Nawabs of Bengal and Bihar as also the two Boards of Revenue at Murshidabad and Patna were abolished. A new Board of Revenue consisting of the governor and his advisers was established at Calcutta to supervise the collection of revenue. Hastings then appointed English officials called Collectors to be in charge of the collection of revenue. The English Collector was to be assisted by an Indian diwan. A preliminary revenue settlement was made for five years, the lands being farmed out by public auction. The treasury was transferred from Murshidabad to Calcutta.

Judicial Reforms

Warren Hastings established a civil court called *Diwani Adalat* and a criminal court called *Faujdari Adalat* in each district. The English Collectors dispensed civil law while the criminal courts were presided over by Indians. He also set up two courts of appeal in Calcutta, viz., the *Sadr Diwani Adalat* for civil cases and *Sadr Nizamat Adalat* for criminal cases. The former was presided over by the Governor-General and two members of the Council, and the latter by an Indian judge. A digest of Hindu law was prepared by ten Sanskrit scholars and was translated into English. Muhammadan Law codified by Aurangazeb was made use of in the courts. Warren Hastings, thus, laid the foundation of the system of judicial administration in British India.

Financial Reforms

Warren Hastings abolished the abuse of private trade by the servants of the Company by enhancing their salaries. He abolished the free passes for the goods of the Company's servants. He fixed

a uniform duty of 2 1/2% on all commodities of trade, except monopolies payable by all merchants, Indians and Europeans alike. He founded a Bank at Calcutta and reformed the system of coinage. Warren Hastings cut down the stipulated allowance to the Nawab of Bengal to one-half. He discontinued the tribute payable to Emperor Shah Alam as the latter had now sought the protection of the Mahrattas. He then took away the districts of Kora and Allahabad from the emperor and sold them to the Nawab of Oudh for fifty lakhs of rupees. Hastings effected much economy in expenditure by abolishing many sinecure posts.

Other Reforms

Warren Hastings had a great appreciation for Indian culture. He encouraged the study of Sanskrit and Persian by Englishmen. He founded the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal with the object of promoting research in Indian History. He also helped to set up a college to promote education among the Muslims.

Relation with Oudh

Warren Hastings wanted to make Oudh a strong buffer state against the attack of the Mahrattas who were rapidly recovering from the disaster of the Third Battle of Panipat. In 1769 A. D., the Mahrattas swept over Rohilkhand. Two years later, they induced Shah Alam to return under their protection to Delhi, but was compelled to surrender into their hands the districts of Kora and Allahabad which Clive had given to him. Warren Hastings would not allow the transference of these districts which linked Bihar with Oudh into the hands of the Mahrattas. He quickly sent troops to occupy these districts. The payment of tribute of 26 lakhs of rupees to Shah Alam was also discontinued. Hastings also decided to strengthen the hands of the Nawab of Oudh by entering into an agreement with Shuja-ud-daula at Banaras. According to the Treaty of Banaras, 1773, the districts of Kora and Allahabad were given back to the Nawab of Oudh who was to pay fifty lakhs of rupees for the restoration. The Nawab also was to pay a subsidy to the Company for the maintenance of a garrison of the Company's troops in Oudh. Warren Hastings agreed to help the Nawab to subdue the Rohilla Afghans who ruled over the fertile land along the base of the Himalayas called Rohilkhand.

The Rohilla War, 1773 A. D.

Rohilkhand was under the constant danger of Mahratta invasion. Hafiz Rahamat Khan, ruler of Rohilkhand, entered into a treaty with the Nawab of Oudh offering to pay Rs. 40 lakhs on condition that the Nawab would extend military aid to drive back Mahratta invasion. In 1773 A. D. the Mahrattas invaded Rohilkhand, but were driven back by the combined forces of the Nawab and the Rohillas. The Nawab then demanded the promised amount. The

Rohilla chief evaded payment saying that the Mahratta threat had not disappeared. The Nawab made use of this delay as a justification to invade the Rohilla territory. The Nawab asked for British help on the basis of the treaty of Banaras and promised a large subsidy. Warren Hastings sent a British army and the Rohillas were expelled beyond the Ganges with heavy slaughter. Rohilkhand was annexed to Oudh. The company received a large sum of money from the Nawab.

Warren Hastings' policy towards Rohilkhand has been severely condemned as an unprovoked attack on an innocent people. He was moved by two considerations in helping Oudh. He wanted more money for the Company and this he could get from the Nawab. Rohilkhand occupied a strategic position and its occupation by Oudh would protect Oudh from the attacks of the Mahrattas. However, it is pointed out that the Rohillas had done nothing against the Company and hence there was no moral justification for the English help to Oudh.

The Regulating Act, 1773 A. D.

There was a general feeling that the Company was making huge profits in India. But owing to corruption and extravagance, the Company encountered great difficulties, and it had to borrow repeatedly from the Bank of England. The horrible tales of corruption and exploitation practised by the Company's servants in India alarmed the British public. There was wide-spread demand in England that the government should interfere and regulate the activities of the Company. A great outcry was raised in 1772 A. D. when the Company applied to the British government for a loan of a million sterling. This opportunity was utilized by the British government to interfere in the affairs of the Company. Lord North, the Prime Minister, introduced in Parliament the East India Company Bill with the object of regulating and reorganizing the affairs of the Company. The Bill passed in 1773 A. D. came to be generally known as the Regulating Act.

The Act slightly modified the constitution of the Company. The directors of the Company were to hold office for four years, instead of for one year, and only those shareholders who had held £ 1,000 of stock for twelve months at least were to vote in the Court of Proprietors. The object of these changes was to increase the sense of responsibility of those who were at the head of the Company's affairs and to check corruption in the election of the directors. The directors were required to lay before the King's ministers copies of all correspondence concerning the civil, military, and revenue affairs of the Company.

The governor of Bengal was to have authority over the other Presidencies and he was to be known as the Governor-General of

Bengal. The Governor-General was to be assisted and controlled by a council consisting of four members. In the council decisions were to be taken by the majority. The Governor-General was to exercise a casting vote in the event of a tie. The first Governor General Warren Hastings, and his four councillors, Sir John Clavering, Colonel Monson, Philip Francis, and Richard Barwell were named in the Act itself, and they were to hold office for five years.

The Governor-General and the Council were to have controlling power over the other two Presidencies in matters of war and peace, except in times of emergencies or on the receipt of special instructions from the directors.

The Act also provided for a Supreme Court consisting of a Chief Justice and three other judges to be appointed by the crown. The Court was empowered to exercise civil, criminal, admiralty and ecclesiastical jurisdiction in respect of all British subjects residing in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa. An appeal from it was to lie with the King-in-Council. Sir Elijah Impey, a school fellow of Warren Hastings was appointed Chief Justice.

The Governor-General and council were given power to make regulations known as Ordinances, for the Company's dominions. These Ordinances would be valid only after they were duly registered and published in the Supreme Court.

Other provisions of the Act prohibited the officials of the Company from receiving presents or engaging in private trade.

The enactment of the Regulating Act "may be regarded as the starting point of modern constitutional history of India." The Act brought about a drastic change not only in the constitution of the Company, but also in its relations to the Crown. The Act, however, was defective in many respects. The Act has been correctly described as a disastrously vague half-measure. The Governor-General was not given authority to override his council, and if three members of the Council would combine together, they could reduce the Governor General to impotence. The powers of the Governor-General to control the other Presidencies were negative. Nor were the provisions regarding the Supreme Court satisfactory. Neither the law it had to administer, nor the people over whom it had jurisdiction, nor the relation between the Executive and the Supreme Court were defined properly. Thus, the Act "had neither given the State a definite control over their servants, nor the Governor-General a definite control over his Council, nor the Calcutta Presidency a definite control over Madras and Bombay." These resulted in frequent quarrels between the Governor-General and his Council and between the Executive and the Judiciary.

Warren Hastings as Governor-General

In 1774 A. D. Warren Hastings became Governor-General under the provisions of the Regulating Act. Three out of the four members of the Council were hostile to Warren Hastings. The inherent defects of Lord North's Act were seen in the practical working of the Council. Excepting Barwell, all the other Councillors were hostile to Warren Hastings and began to quarrel with him. They prevented him from having his own way in many matters of policy and administration. The struggle between Hastings and the Councillors lasted for six years. By that time, his enemies 'sickened, died and fled'. In 1776 A. D. Monson died and in 1780 A. D. Hastings wounded Francis in a duel and the latter left for England. Thereafter, the Governor-General was able to maintain his position generally.

The Nandakumar Affair

Warren Hastings was accused of having committed several unjust and undignified acts in his capacity as Governor-General. Perhaps, the most notorious of these was the execution of an old Brahmin of high rank called Nandakumar who had a grudge against Warren Hastings. In March 1775 Nandakumar laid before the Council a letter accusing Warren Hastings of having received huge bribes amounting to a few lakhs of rupees. While investigation was going on, Nandakumar was arrested on a charge of forgery brought against him by one Mohan Prasad, who was a bitter enemy of Nandakumar, and a very close friend of Warren Hastings. The Supreme Court presided over by Sir Elijah Impey tried him and awarded him the death sentence. It has been suggested by some that Warren Hastings was in collusion with the Chief Justice, and in order to get rid of a dangerous foe, brought about Nandakumar's judicial murder. The allegation was not true. Nandakumar's execution, though not a judicial murder, was a grave miscarriage of justice. The punishment of death was far too severe, and fine or imprisonment would have been the appropriate penalty, as no Indian law prescribed death penalty for forgery.

The Chait Singh Affair

The Mahratta and Mysore Wars had greatly strained the financial resources of the Company. Warren Hastings was, therefore, forced to coerce the rich and influential dependants of the Company to replenish the treasury. His first victim was Raja Chait Singh of Banaras. Chait Singh was originally a feudatory of the Nawab of Oudh. But, by the treaty of Fyzabad concluded in 1775 A. D., he hence forward held his land from the Company as overlord. By the terms of the treaty, Chait Singh had to pay to the Company an annual tribute of 22 1/2 lakhs of rupees. In 1778 A. D. Warren Hastings demanded from Chait Singh war subsidy of 5 lakhs of rupees. Chait Singh paid the amount. Hastings repeated the demand in the two succeeding years, 1779 and 1780 A. D. Chait Singh paid the amount promptly

in 1779. When the payment was delayed in 1780, Hastings decided to punish Chait Singh. The Governor-General marched with a small force to Banaras and imprisoned Chait Singh. This was too much for the long suffering people of Banaras. They rose in revolt against the English. The revolt, however, was quickly suppressed. Chait Singh was deposed and his nephew was installed in his place. The tribute payable by the new Rajah was raised to forty lakhs of rupees per year. The treatment meted out to Chait Singh has also come in for severe criticism as cruel, unjust, oppressive, and vindictive.

Begums of Oudh

Asaf-ud-daula, the Nawab of Oudh, owed the Company about 150 lakhs of rupees by way arrears of subsidy. The Nawab paid 10 lakhs of rupees and expressed his inability to clear the dues unless he got assistance from his mother and grandmother. In 1775 A. D. Warren Hastings induced the British Resident to put pressure on the Begums to extract part of their allegedly hoarded wealth. The Begums agreed to pay a large sum, provided no further demand for money was made on them. This was solemnly agreed to by Hastings and his Council. Yet, six years later, 1781 A. D., on the request of Asaf-ud-daula, Hastings broke his agreement with the Begums on the pretext that the Begums had lost their claim for protection because of their association with Chait Singh. Hastings sent the British Resident and troops to compel the Begums to surrender the treasures. This transaction again was a 'sordid, shabby and sorry business' which violated all sense of decency, morality and justice.

Pitt's India Act of 1784

During the closing years of Hastings' administration, Indian affairs absorbed a good deal of the attention of Parliament. An Amending Act was passed by Parliament in 1781 A. D. with a view to remedying some of the glaring defects noticed in the working of the Regulating Act. The defects of the Regulating Act were, however, not altogether rectified by the Amending Act of 1781. In 1784 A. D. Prime Minister Pitt got passed in Parliament a new bill designed to remedy the defects in the working of the Regulating Act.

The Bill came to be known as the Pitt's India Act. The Act sought to bring the Company under the effective control of the Crown and Parliament. The Act established a Board of Commissioners popularly known as the Board of Control. It consisted of the Chancellor of Exchequer, a Secretary of State and four Privy Counsellors appointed by the King. The Board was to have full control over all civil and military matters of the Company. A Committee of Secrecy consisting of three Directors was constituted to transmit to India the resolutions or orders of the Board. The Court of Proprietors was deprived of any right to annul or suspend any resolution of the Directors approved of by the Board. The Governor-General's

Council was to consist of only three members including the Commander-in-Chief. Each of the subordinate presidencies—Madras and Bombay—would be governed by a Governor and three councillors. The presidencies of Bombay and Madras were made definitely subordinate to the Governor-General in all matters of war, revenue and diplomacy. One of the most important provisions of the Act was a declaration that "extension of dominion in India is repugnant to the wish, honour and policy of this nation". The Governor-General should not declare war or conclude treaties with native rulers without the permission of the Directors.

Pitt's India Act established a double government for the Company's possessions in India, that of the Board of control and that of the Company's Directors. This system remained in force till 1858 A. D.

External Affairs

During the Governor-Generalship of Warren Hastings, British authority in India was challenged by the Mahrattas and by Haidar Ali of Mysore. Hastings saved the situation by his skill and diplomacy. He fought the Second Mysore War (1780—1784 A. D.) and the First Mahratta War (1775—1782 A. D.). In the war against Haidar Ali, Hastings frustrated the designs of Haidar Ali to destroy the British power. In the First Mahratta War, Hastings won victories over the Mahratta Chieftains—and got Salsette and Bassein for the British. As a result of these wars, by the end of Hastings administration British had developed into the strongest power in India.

Retirement and Impeachment of Warren Hastings

Warren Hastings did not like the provisions of the Pitt's India Act. He also had incurred the displeasure of Pitt. Hence he resigned his office and returned to England, in February 1785. On his return to England, Warren Hastings was impeached before Parliament for "high crimes and misdemeanours". The trial began on 13 February 1788, and dragged on for seven years. Hastings was charged on twenty counts including mal-administration, bribery, oppression, and other fraudulent transactions. In these, the cases of Raja Chait Singh and Begums of Oudh loomed large. Burke, Fox, and Sheridan, the distinguished orators of the day, and managers of the impeachment, had many unpleasant remarks to make against Warren Hastings. In the end, a grateful House acquitted him on all counts. The cost of his defence had ruined him. The Directors, therefore, granted him a life pension. He died in 1818 A. D.

An Estimate of Warren Hastings

Warren Hastings occupies a prominent place in the history of British imperialism in India. He came to office at a time when no government worth the name existed in Bengal. He planned a system

of administration which reduced the chaotic rule of the Company to an ordered government. He preserved the British dominion in India at a time when it was threatened by hostile combinations of Indian powers. On the basis of these achievements he has been described as "the greatest Englishman who ever ruled India". However, it has to be admitted that the character and achievements of Warren Hastings suffered from serious defects. To meet the financial difficulties of the administration he resorted to questionable tactics and committed acts of deliberate cruelty which greatly tarnished his reputation. But in all these he was guided solely by patriotic motive. Hence, in spite of the shortcomings of his work, Hastings occupies a place of honour among the makers of British empire in India.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Write a note on the career and achievements of Robert Clive.
2. Give an estimate of the work of Clive in Bengal.
3. How did the English establish their rule in Bengal?
4. Examine the contribution of Warren Hastings to the growth of British power in India.
5. Give an estimate of the Governor-Generalship of Warren Hastings.
6. Critically examine the reforms of Warren Hastings.
7. Examine the salient features of the Regulating Act of 1773.
8. Point out the main provisions of the Regulating Act and say how they were modified by Pitt's India Act.

Short-answer Type

1. Write a brief note on the "Black-Hole Tragedy". What is the importance of the battle of Plassey in the history of India?
2. Why did Mir Kasim quarrel with the English?
3. When was the battle of Buxar fought? What is the importance of this battle in Indian History?
4. How did the treaty of Allahabad help the British in establishing their rule in Bengal.
5. Explain the main features of the 'Double Government' in Bengal under Clive

6. Point out the important reforms introduced by Clive during his second Governorship of Bengal.

7. Point out the main features of the revenue reforms of Warren Hastings.

8. Mention the salient features of the judicial reforms of Warren Hastings.

9. Point out the main features of the financial reforms of Warren Hastings.

10. Bring out the significance of the Oudh policy of Warren Hastings.

11. What is the Nandakumar affair? Explain Warren Hastings policy towards Rohilkhand.

12. Comment on the treatment meted out by Warren Hastings to Raja Chait Singh and the Begums of Oudh.

Objective Type

A. Name the following:

- The name given to Calcutta when it was raised as a Presidency.
- The capital of the province of Bengal.
- The territory ceded to the English by Mir Jafar.
- The districts ceded to the English by Mir Kasim.
- The society founded by Warren Hastings to promote research in Indian History.
- The Prime Minister of England when the Regulating Act was passed
- The members of the Governor-General's Council mentioned in the Regulating Act.
- The Chief Justice of the Supreme Court during the Governor Generalship of Warren Hastings.
- The managers of the impeachment of Warren Hastings.

B. Match the following:

- | A | B |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Siraj-ud-daulah | Double Government |
| 2. Mir Kasim | Plassey |
| 3. Clive | Buxar |
| 4. Nandakumar | Mohan Prasad |
| 5. Raja Chait Singh | Treaty of Fyzabad |

CHAPTER XVIII

The Governor-Generalship of Lord Cornwallis

When Warren Hastings left India Sir John Macpherson, the senior member of Council, succeeded him as temporary Governor-General. Macpherson held office for a year and a half until the arrival of Lord Cornwallis as permanent Governor-General in 1786 A. D.

Lord Cornwallis came to India with a good reputation as a soldier and diplomat. He was a man of high character. Before he consented to accept office, he asked for an enlargement of the powers of Governor-Generalship. A special Act of Parliament passed in 1786 A. D. empowered him to over-rule the decisions of the Council in times of emergency and enabled him to take the chief command of the armies in the field. He also enjoyed the confidence of Dundas, the President of the Board of control, and Pitt, the Prime Minister, and the support of the Court of Directors. These favourable circumstances helped Cornwallis in pursuing his own course of action unhampered by any kind of opposition.

Administrative Reforms

Lord Cornwallis introduced many useful reforms which touched almost every branch of administration. His reforms fall under three heads, viz., reform of the Company's service, reform of the judiciary, and the permanent settlement of the land revenues of Bengal.

Reform of the Company's Service

In spite of the reforms introduced by Warren Hastings, shocking evils existed in the civil service of the Company. Officers, high and low, were hopelessly corrupt, and it may be said that every officer had his own price. The salaries of officials were small, but they were allowed handsome commissions on revenue collections. Besides, they were engaged in private trade which had long been forbidden. Lord Cornwallis put down corruption rigorously and strictly forbade private trade. But he increased the salaries of the officials on a generous scale so that they might be above temptation. He also reorganized the service by separating the functions of

the collector and judge. In spite of these healthy measures, he did a serious injustice to Indians by shutting them out completely from higher places in government service.

Judicial Reforms

Cornwallis carried out a comprehensive reform of civil and criminal courts, and thus completed the work begun by Warren Hastings in this direction. He set up an ascending hierarchy of courts. The lowest courts, presided over by Indian Munsifs and *Sadr Amins*, tried petty civil cases. Above them were the *Zilla* or District courts under a British judge with native assessors. Above these were the four Provincial Courts of Appeal at Calcutta, Murshidabad, Patna and Dacca. Each of these courts was presided over by three European judges with native assessors. These were courts of circuit. At the top was the *Sadr Diwani Adalt* consisting of the Governor-General and members of Council in Calcutta. A parallel organization of criminal courts was also set up with the *Sadr Nizmat Adalt* consisting of the Governor-General and Council as the Court of Appeal at the top. The judges of the provincial civil courts going on circuit undertook the trial of serious criminal cases.

Cornwallis Code

The codes of law and procedure were revised and modernised. An elaborate new code of Regulations Called Cornwallis Code was drawn up by George Barlow for the guidance of the various officials. It described the administrative system, civil procedure and the powers of different authorities.

Police System

Cornwallis also laid the foundation of a regular police system. The districts were divided into small units of about 20 square miles called *Thanas*, each in charge of a *Daroga* who was subject to the control of the district magistrate. In 1791 A. D. a Commissioner of Police was first appointed for Calcutta.

Permanent Settlement

The most important measure introduced by Cornwallis was the Permanent Settlement of Bengal. During the administration of Warren Hastings the right to collect revenue was leased for five years to the highest bidder. This proved a failure as the lease-holders had offered to pay much more than they could collect. They fell into arrears to a great extent. Then Warren Hastings attempted the system of annual leases which proved to be worse than the previous system. The revenue from land fell. When Cornwallis assumed office he found the country in ruins. Agriculture and trade were

declining. The small farmer and the big zamindars were sinking in poverty. The only prosperous people were the money lenders who extracted profits from the misery of the people. Assisted by Sir John Shore who was well-versed in revenue matters, the Governor-General made a thorough study of the land revenue problems and made a settlement for ten years in 1789 A. D. Later, the settlement was made permanent in 1793 A. D. The main features of the Permanent Settlement were that the zamindars or the revenue collectors were declared the owners of the land under their possession, but they were to pay a fixed sum to the government for the lands they held. The assessment fixed in 1793 A. D. was declared to be permanent. The settlement of 1793 was made as high as possible. It was almost double the assessment of 1765.

The Permanent Settlement of Cornwallis has been praised as a salutary measure by some while some others have condemned it vigorously. The admirers of the measure regarded it as the best remedy for all agrarian and economic ills which were then troubling Bengal. It has been pointed out that the system guaranteed the State a fixed and stable revenue without the expenses and inconveniences involved in periodical re-assessments. It is also claimed that the vested interests of the zamindar ensured his loyalty to the British, encouraged the growth of agricultural enterprise and made him the natural leader of the ryots.

On the other hand, the critics of the measure pointed out that it was a sad blunder. The revenue was fixed almost arbitrarily without the necessary preliminaries like the survey of land, classification of the soil, assessment of the yield, and preparation of the records of the ryots. The second serious defect was that under the system the rights and interests of the ryots were not properly safeguarded. The ryots lost their proprietary rights over land and they were fleeced by the zamindars. The Permanent Settlement involved a big sacrifice on the part of the State of all possible increase of rent in future. The zamindars who could not collect revenue in time to pay off their dues to the Company were compelled to sell the lands to new proprietors. Many of the big land-holders in Bengal were more or less ruined. Thus, the Permanent Settlement was a desperate leap in the dark.

Foreign Policy of Cornwallis

In foreign relations Cornwallis wanted to follow the policy laid down in Pitt's India Act of non-intervention, forbidding the Company to enter into any alliances, offensive or defensive, with the princes of India, or to declare war without the consent of the Board of Control. He refused to assist the son of Shah Alam in recovering the throne of Delhi and adroitly kept out of such complications. But soon circumstance compelled him to give up the policy of non-intervention as war with Tipu Sultan of Mysore became unavoidable.

In 1789 A. D. when Tipu attacked the territories of the Raja of Travancore, a staunch ally of the English, Cornwallis entered into a league with the Nizam and the Peshwa, and attacked Mysore. Cornwallis took the command in person. Tipu submitted and agreed to the terms of peace imposed on him. According to the treaty, Tipu had to cede nearly half of his dominions to his enemies, to pay an indemnity of £3 million and to give two of his sons as hostages. The territory taken from Tipu was divided equally among the allies. Lord Cornwallis retired in 1793 A. D. and was succeeded by Sir John Shore.

An Estimate of Cornwallis

Cornwallis became Governor-General at a time when British administration in India was steeped in corruption and jobbery of every form. He purified the administration by waging incessant wars against these evils. His most significant acts were the reform of the civil service, the reorganization of the judiciary and the introduction of Permanent Settlement in Bengal. However, his works were not free from defects. The Cornwallis Code required many amendments in the days of his successors. The judicial system of Cornwallis did not give the people speedy and cheap justice. The defects of the Permanent Settlement prevented its extension to other places and called for remedial legislation to protect the tenants.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Critically examine the reforms of Lord Cornwallis.
2. Outline the revenue and judicial reforms of Lord Cornwallis.
3. Give an account of the permanent revenue settlement effected by Lord Cornwallis and point out its merits and defects.

Short-answer Type

1. Point out the reforms introduced by Cornwallis in the service of the Company.
2. State the judicial reforms of Cornwallis.
3. Point out the main features of the Permanent Settlement of Bengal effected by Lord Cornwallis.

Objective Type**A. Name the following:**

(a) The senior member of the council who succeeded Warren Hastings as temporary Governor-General.

(b) The president of the Board of Control when Cornwallis became Governor-General.

B. Match the following:**A**

1. Cornwallis
2. George Barlow

B

- Cornwallis Code
- Permanent Settlement

CHAPTER XIX

Haidar Ali and Tipu Sultan

The territory roughly corresponding to Mysore, at present known as the State of Karnataka, during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries A. D., was ruled by the Hoysala kings, and then became a part of the Vijayanagar empire. After the break-up of the Vijayanagar empire, it became independent under the Wodeyar dynasty. By the middle of the eighteenth century A. D. the Wodeyar dynasty declined. But very soon Mysore became a force to be reckoned with under Haidar Ali and Tipu Sultan.

Haidar Ali was born in 1722 A. D. as the son of Fateh Muhammad who served the kingdom of Mysore as the Faujdar of Kolar. He began his career as a Naik in the army of Nanjaraj, the commander-in-chief of Mysore. He took part in the Anglo-French conflict at Trichinopoly and thus gained experience in the art of war. He was appointed Faujdar of Dindigal in 1755 A. D. Gradually, he improved his position and became the commander-in-chief of the Mysore army after ousting Nanjaraj. By 1761 A. D. Haidar Ali became the *defacto* ruler by imprisoning the prime minister and pretending nominal submission to the King. In 1766 A. D. when the Rajah of Mysore died he seized the supreme power. Haidar then made a series of conquests and enlarged the kingdom. He conquered Coimbatore, Malabar, Bednore, Chittaldurg, Mangalore and South Canara. He also repulsed three Mahratta invasions under Peshwa Madhava Rao I and occupied Bellary, Ooty and Cuddappah belonging to the Mahrattas.

First Mysore War (1767—1769 A. D.)

Haidar's relations with the British were not friendly. The British were agitated over the growing French influence in the court of Haidar Ali. The Madras government entered into an agreement with the Nizam of Hyderabad in 1766 A. D. and consented to send him military assistance as a reward for giving up the Northern Circars. The Nizam then advanced with the assistance of the British against Mysore. The unprovoked enmity of the British made him furious. He won the Nizam to his side and induced him to join him against the British. He then invaded the Karnatak along with the Nizam. Thus the First Anglo-Mysore War began.

The combined forces of Haidar Ali and the Nizam met the English forces at Chengam and Tiruvannamalai. They were defeated and the

Nizam withdrew after concluding a separate treaty with the English. However, Haidar was not to be thwarted so easily. The war dragged on. Finally, at the head of his swift cavalry, Haidar made a sudden dash and approached Madras in March 1769. He compelled the Madras Council to agree to a treaty dictated by him. By the Treaty of Madras, 1769 A. D. the conquered territories were mutually restored. Both parties agreed to help each other in future wars of defence. Thus the war ended in favour Haidar.

Second Mysore War (1780—1784 A. D.)

After 1769 A. D., there was gradual alienation between Haidar Ali and the English. In 1770 A. D. when the Mahrattas attacked Mysore, Haidar sought the help of the English on the basis of the treaty of 1769. But the Madras government refused to help Haidar and the latter was beaten by the Mahrattas. In 1778 A. D. when France joined the side of the revolted American colonies against England, the latter declared war against France and the French in India, marched through Haidar's territories and captured the French settlement of Mahe. Hence, in 1779 A. D. Haidar joined a formidable anti-British confederacy organized by the Nizam which included all the Mahratta chieftains except the Gaekwar of Baroda, and declared war against the British.

Haidar Ali came down upon the plains of the Karnatak in 1780 A. D., with a large army and captured Arcot. The position of the English at Madras was in the greatest danger. However, Warren Hastings, the Governor General, showed the greatest promptitude in meeting the situation. Hastings, by skillful diplomacy broke the coalition and separated the Mahrattas and the Nizam from Haidar Ali. He then despatched Sir Eyre Coote to Madras with reinforcements from Bengal. Sir Eyre Coote defeated Haidar Ali at Portonovo in July 1781. Another battle fought at Pollilor was indecisive. A third battle was fought at Sholinagar in which Haidar Ali was defeated. The English then captured Nagapattinam and Trincomali from the Dutch. A French fleet under Suffrin, however, recovered Trincomali and kept the English busy at sea. In February 1782 an English army under Colonel Braithwaite was compelled to surrender to Haidar's troops led by his son Tipu at Tanjore. Haidar died in 1782 A. D., but Tipu continued the war. Tipu besieged Mangalore which was then in British occupation. Meanwhile, peace had been concluded between England and France. The war was brought to an end by the treaty of Mangalore in March 1784 on the basis of mutual restitution of conquests and release of prisoners.

An Estimate of Haidar Ali

Haidar Ali was one of the most remarkable rulers in the history of India. From humble beginnings he rose to the position of the

ruler of Mysore by dint of native ability and extraordinary valour. He possessed all the qualities required of a successful ruler. He was a brave soldier and an able administrator. Haider has been described as "the most tolerant" of the Muslim rulers of India. He employed many Hindus in government and army. It has been pointed out that he was the first Indian ruler to realize the seriousness of the English threat to India. But he failed to receive the full support of his compatriots in his struggle against the foreigners.

Tipu Sultan and the Third Mysore War (1790—1792 A. D.)

Tipu, who became the Sultan of Mysore when Haider Ali died, was a proud and able ruler. He hated the English and was, perhaps, the most relentless foe of the Company. He had not accepted the treaty of Mangalore as a lasting settlement of the conflict of interests between him and the English.

The Nizam of Hyderabad who was an ally of the Company sought the help of the British to recover some of the territories from Tipu Sultan. But Tipu also was an ally of the British and his claims to the territories now coveted by the Nizam had been recognized by the Company by the treaty of Madras in 1760 A. D., and by the treaty of Mangalore in 1784 A. D. But Cornwallis decided to respond to the Nizam's appeal on the ground that Tipu was contemplating war with the English. The English troops were sent on condition that they should not be employed against any ally of the British. Tipu's name was not included in this list. He, therefore, prepared himself for a final conflict with the British by organizing an efficient army and strengthening the defences of the country. He sent envoys to the courts of Constantinople and Paris to seek support against the English. In 1789 A. D. Tipu attacked Travancore whose Raja was an ally of the British. Thereupon Cornwallis formed a triple alliance with the Nizam and the Peshwa and declared war upon Tipu in 1790 A. D. which came to be known as the Third Mysore War.

The Madras government sent General Meadows to conduct the campaign. During the first year of the war the English occupied Dindigul, Coimbatore and Palghat. But in their performance the Madras army fell below expectation. Then Cornwallis himself took the command in person and defeated Tipu in a pitched battle near Srirangapatnam. But he could not pursue his success owing to the shortage of supplies. In the following year Cornwallis marched with a well equipped army and captured the outskirts of Srirangapatnam and compelled Tipu to sue for peace. In 1792 A. D., the Treaty of Srirangapatnam was signed, and according to this treaty, Tipu had to cede half of his kingdom and to pay 3 crores of rupees towards war indemnity. His two sons were surrendered to Cornwallis as hostages. The British got as their share of the ceded territory Malabar, Dindigul, Coimbatore, Salem and Coorg. The Nizam and the Marathas also received their share.

Fourth Mysore war (1798—1799 A. D.) and the Fall of Tipu

After the third war with Mysore Lord Cornwallis believed that Tipu had been 'effectively crippled'. But this was far from the truth. Tipu, instead of reconciling himself with the British who imposed upon him the humiliating treaty of Srirangapatnam, exerted all his activity to repair the ravages of war. He entered into correspondence with Napoleon. French officers came down to Srirangapatnam where they founded a Jacobin club and planted the Tree of Liberty. Tipu also sent his envoys to Kabul and Constantinople. He persuaded Zaman Shah of Kabul to invade North India. Lord Wellesley grasped the seriousness of the situation and declared war on Tipu after entering into a subsidiary alliance with the Nizam.

The main army under General Harris and the Nizam's forces under Arthur Wellesley invaded Mysore from the east while the army from Bombay attacked from west. Tipu was defeated at Malavalli and forced to take refuge in Srirangapatnam. Wellesley imposed hard terms demanding a huge indemnity and half of the Kingdom of Mysore. Tipu preferred to fight rather than submit to these terms. But he was defeated and he died fighting like a true hero. Wellesley annexed Kanara, Coimbatore, Srirangapatnam and some other districts in the east. The Nizam was given some lands in the north-east. A child of the old Wodeyar family was made king of Mysore proper. The sons of Tipu were given generous pensions. The new kingdom of Mysore entered into the Subsidiary alliance with the British.

An Estimate of Tipu Sultan

Tipu Sultan was, no doubt, one of the most striking and brilliant personalities in the history of India. He stands out prominent among the Indian rulers who resisted the British rule in India. English historians have described him as a tyrant and a fanatic. But this is not correct. He was a pious Muslim and was always eager to conciliate the Hindus and win their favour. He was a gallant soldier and a good diplomat. He fought bravely for the freedom of the country. He was a good administrator and his care for the welfare of the peasantry is testified to by English writers. He was a good scholar and knew Persian, Urdu and Kanarese. In spite of these good qualities, Tipu was destined to fail in his attempt to expel the English from the country, because he did not receive the whole-hearted support of his allies.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Describe the career and achievements of Haidar Ali of Mysore.

2. Trace the Anglo-Mysore relations during the times of Haidar Ali and Tipu Sultan.

Short-answer Type

1. Give an account of the First Mysore War.
2. Give an account of the Second Mysore War.
3. Describe the causes and results of Third Mysore War.
4. How did the Fourth Mysore War cause the fall of Tipu Sultan?

Objective Type

A. Name the following:

- (a) The father of Haidar Ali.
- (b) The English Commander who defeated Haidar Ali at Porto-novo in July 1781.
- (c) The territories acquired by the British at the end of the Third Mysore War.

B. Match the following:

A

1. The kingdom of Mysore
2. The Raja of Travancore
3. Treaty of Srirengapatnam

B

- An ally of the British
Tipu Sultan
Wodeyar dynasty

CHAPTER XX

Growth of the British Power

The Company had changed in a few years from a trading company to a territorial power in India by the establishment of its rule in the Karnatak in the South and Bengal in the North-east. In the days of Clive the Company emerged as king-makers in Bengal and in the Karnatak. Warren Hastings assumed virtual sovereignty of Bengal and introduced reforms in the administration. Cornwallis pursued the schemes of reform further, and, besides, acquired, as a result of the Third Mysore War, important places from where the Company's possessions could be effectively guarded. Oudh and the Nizam had been reduced to vassalage. The Act of 1784 had expressly stated that the English did not desire any further extension of territory. This policy of non-intervention had been adhered to, both in letter and spirit by Sir John Shore who succeeded Cornwallis as Governor-General. But Shore's adherence to the policy of non-intervention only helped the growth of French influence in the court of the Nizam and provided an opportunity for the enemies of Britain such as Mysore and Mahrattas to strengthen themselves and develop their capacity for aggression and resistance. It was at such a critical stage in the history of the British in India that Richard Wellesley succeeded Sir John Shore to the Governor-Generalship.

MARQUIS OF WELLESLEY (1798—1806 A. D.)

Wellesley came to India in 1798 A. D. as Governor-General. When Wellesley arrived in India he found that the country was a battle ground of different powers for supremacy and that the British prestige in India was diminishing on account of the non-intervention policy pursued by his predecessor, Sir John Shore. The expedition of Napoleon to Egypt encouraged opponents of the British such as Tipu, the Nizam and the Mahrattas to seek French assistance against the English. Tipu Sultan conducted correspondence with Napoleon, and the armies of Tipu were trained and equipped by the French. The Nizam was organizing a body of regular troops under a French officer. The Scindia was getting his armies trained on European model by a French commander. The ascendancy of the French in the courts of the Indian princes was a matter of grave concern for the new Governor-General. Wellesley had been a brilliant scholar and an able administrator, thoroughly acquainted with Indian affairs even before he came to India. He took a comprehensive view of the

situation and decided to give up the policy of non-intervention and to make the British the supreme power in India. To achieve this, Wellesley adopted three methods: the system of subsidiary alliances, mediatization and war.

Subsidiary Alliances

Wellesley developed the scheme of subsidiary alliances to establish the British paramountcy in India. According to this scheme, the ruler who accepted it should submit to the British supremacy over him and allow his foreign relations to be directed by the Company. A British Resident and a British force should be stationed in his capital. The British army thus stationed would protect the State from internal revolt and external attacks. Towards the expenses of the British troops, the ruler should make annual payments or cede a portion of his territory to the Company. He should remove all non-British Europeans from his State.

In 1801 A. D. the Nizam signed the subsidiary alliance and ceded the districts of Bellary, Anantapur, Kurnool and Cuddapah to the Company. The same year, Sadat Ali of Oudh accepted the alliance and handed over Rohilkhand, the Doab and the Gorakhpur district to the British. The Company thus acquired the territories encircling Oudh and touching the dominions of the Scindia in the north.

Mediatization

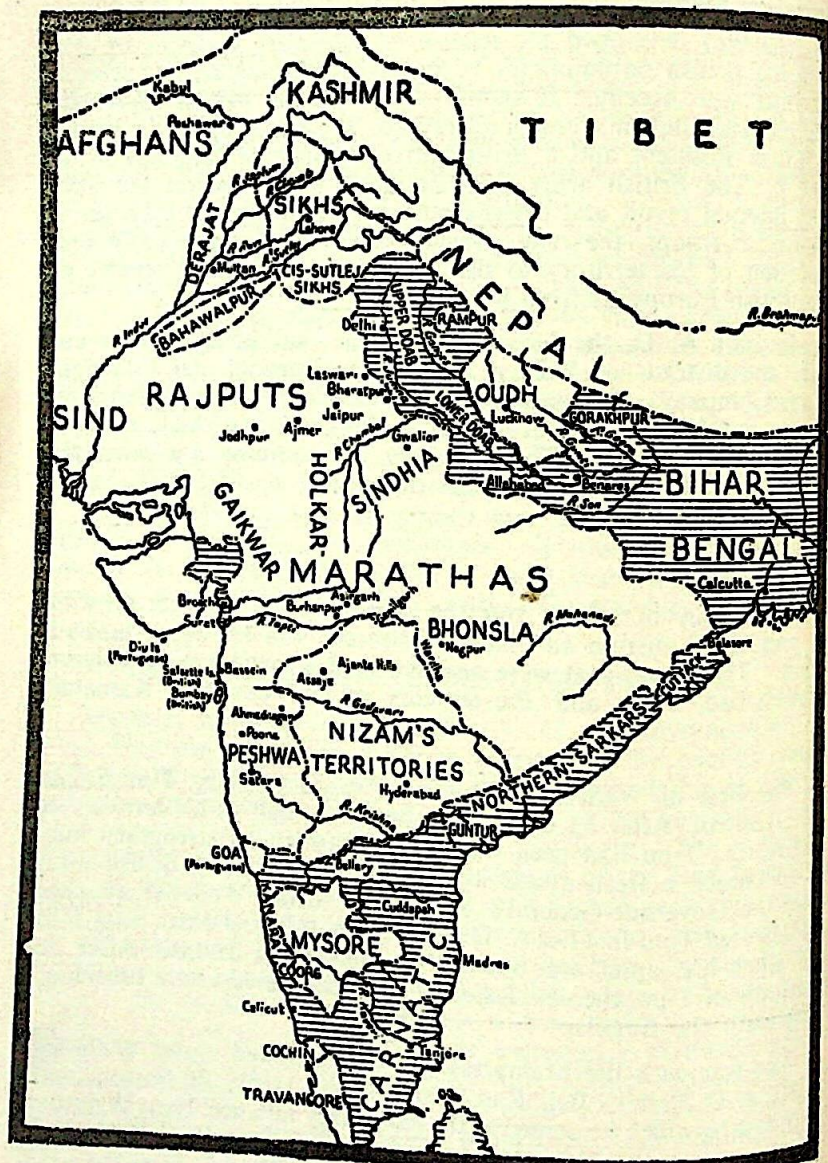
The policy of taking over the administration of a territory on the pretext of misrule and internal disorder was known as mediatization. The States that were annexed in this manner were Tanjore, Farrukhabad, Surat and the territory of the Nawab of Karnatak.

Wars

The first of Wellesley's wars was waged to bring Tipu Sultan under control. After his defeat and the loss of half of his territory in 1792 A. D., Tipu had been working unceasingly to strengthen himself to launch a fresh attack against the British. The British army under the Governor-General's brother Sir Arthur Wellesley attacked and defeated Tipu in 1799 A. D. Tipu died a hero's death on 4 May 1799 when his capital was stormed by the British troops. After the overthrow of Tipu, the new Rajah of Mysore entered into a subsidiary treaty with the English.

The war with the Mahrattas was also renewed under Wellesley. In 1802 A. D. Peshwa Baji Rao II signed the Treaty of Bassein with the British by which he agreed to the subsidiary alliance. Now Wellesley declared war on the Mahrattas to reinstate Baji Rao II on the throne of Poona. The armies of the Scindia and the Bhonsle were defeated at the battle of Assaye in September 1803 and at Argaon and

Laswari in the following November. The Scindia and the Bhonsle surrendered part of their territories to the British, and accepted British residents at their courts thus becoming subsidiaries of the British. After the defeat of the Scindia and the Bhonsle, the Holkar



declared war against the British. But before the war could lead to a decisive conclusion, the directors of the Company, feeling that the Indian wars were too costly, recalled Wellesley in 1805 A. D.

An Estimate of Wellesley

Richard Wellesley was one of the greatest and ablest of the Company's officers, and deserves to be ranked along with the builders of British India such as Robert Clive and Warren Hastings who preceded him and Lord Hastings and Lord Dalhousie who came after him. He studied the Indian situation and laid down a line of action from which it was impossible for his successors to withdraw. It has been rightly said of him that under his able guidance "the British Empire in India was transformed into the British Empire of India."

Wellesley to Hastings

The annexations effected by Wellesley considerably extended the territory under the rule of the Company. The increasing responsibility and expenditure involved in this extension of territory naturally alarmed the directors of the Company. So they decided to withdraw the policy of non-intervention and sent Lord Cornwallis again as Governor-General to India. Cornwallis came determined to do his utmost to bring about a reversal of the policy adopted by Wellesley, but died within a few months of his arrival. Sir George Barlow, a civil servant of the Company, and Senior Member of the Council at Calcutta, succeeded Cornwallis as a temporary measure. He, and Lord Minto who succeeded him as Governor-General (1807—1813 A. D.) generally adhered to the policy of non-intervention. This policy gave the British sufficient time and opportunity to organize their finances, improve their commerce and stabilize the administration of the territories under their control.

LORD HASTINGS (1813—1823 A. D.)

Earl Moira, better known by his title Lord Hastings, succeeded Lord Minto to the Governor-Generalship of India in 1813 A. D. He was fifty-nine years of age when he accepted the office and showed astonishing vigour and courage in the discharge of his responsibilities. The Governor-Generalship of Lord Hastings constituted an important epoch in the history of British imperialism in India. Lord Hastings followed a bold forward policy which he described as "Subordinate Co-operation." This meant the subordination of the conquered State to British authority, British control over the foreign policy of the State, prohibition of mutual alliances, non-interference of the British in internal affairs, and reference of all disputes among the subordinate States for arbitration by the British. This policy went one step further beyond the subsidiary alliance of Wellesley in the building up of the British Indian empire.

War with Nepal (1814—1816 A. D.)

Hastings was first called upon to deal with the Gurkhas of Nepal who encroached upon the frontiers of Bengal and Oudh, and captured some of the territories claimed by the Company. The British demanded their withdrawal from their territories, and when the Gurkhas refused to go back, Hastings declared war in 1814 A. D.. In the early stages the British were not able to make any progress. The hilly nature of the country, the English ignorance of the topography of the region, the incompetence of the commanders and the warlike nature of the enemies were responsible for this. After two years of fighting the British-General advanced to Khatmandu, the capital of Nepal, and defeated the Gurkhas. The Gurkha ruler was compelled to sign the Treaty of Sagauli in 1816 A. D. By this treaty the Gurkhas ceded to the British Garhwal and Kumaon, and most of the region called Tarai, and agreed to receive a British Resident at their capital.

The Pindari War (1817—1818 A. D.)

The Pindaris were bands of lawless men who made their living by organized plunder. They were originally the irregular horsemen of the Mahratta army. The native soldiers who were retrenched from their services because of the subsidiary system, also joined the Pindaris. They settled themselves in Malwa and the Narmada valley. The three chief leaders of the Pindaris were Chitu, Wasil Muhammad and Karim Khan. Besides the Pindaris, there were roving bands of Pathans operating under their leader Amir Khan. These lawless men carried fire and sword into the Mirzapur district, the Nizam's dominions and the Northern Circars.

The Governor-General resolved to annihilate the Pindari forces. Before starting his campaign against the Pindaris, Lord Hastings wanted to detach them from the Mahratta chiefs. He forced the Mahratta chiefs to sign treaties binding them to help the British against the Pindaris. Lord Hastings and Sir Thomas Hislop attacked the Pindari hordes from the north and south respectively and the Pindaris were completely defeated.

The Third Mahratta War (1817—1818 A. D.)

In 1817 A. D. the Mahrattas made a last attempt to regain their independence and power. The Peshwa Baji Rao II organized a united front of the Mahratta chiefs and attacked the British Residency at Poona in November 1817. The Mahratta army was, however, defeated decisively and all the chiefs were forced to surrender large parts of their territories. The Peshwa was deposed and given a pension. The Holkar and the Bhonsle had to accept subsidiary British forces. A representative of the line of Shivaji was placed on the throne of Satara with a small principality carved out of Baji Rao's forfeited dominions. Thus, the power of the leading Mahratta chiefs was crushed for ever.

Hastings and the Rajputs

Hastings realised that the Rajputs constituted an important element in Indian politics, and, therefore, their co-operation was absolutely necessary to the British. So, during the six years following 1817 A. D. he concluded separate treaties with most of the Rajput States. All of them agreed to acknowledge the British supremacy, pay a tribute, render military aid on demand, and stop communicating with other powers except through the British Resident. The British in their turn assured them that they would be allowed to be absolute rulers of their territory. Thus, the suzerainty of the British was extended to Rajputana also.

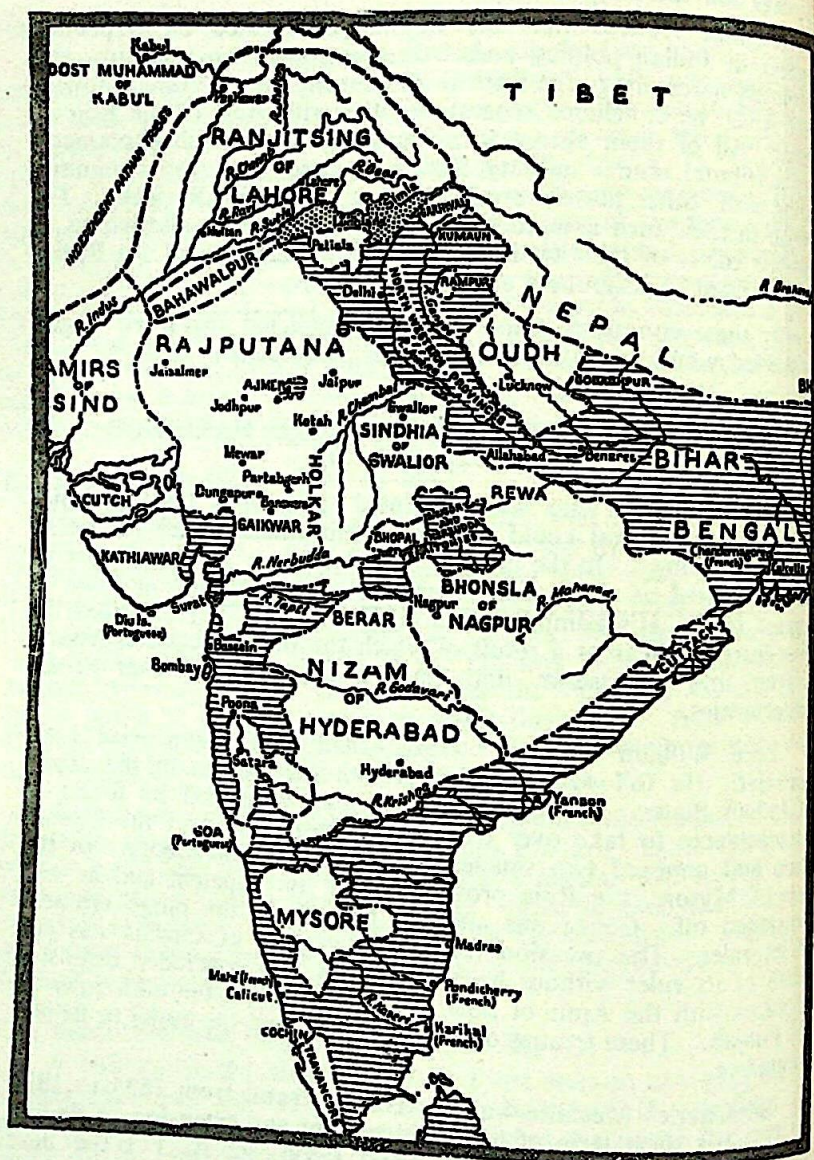
By these conquests Lord Hastings completed the work begun by Wellesley and made the British power paramount in India.

FROM LORD AMHERST TO LORD HARDINGE (1823—1848 A. D.)

Lord Amherst who was appointed to succeed Lord Hastings as Governor-General could not arrive immediately after the retirement of Hastings. In the interval, Mr. Adams, a senior member of Council, acted as Governor-General. Amherst arrived in India in August 1823. His administration (1823—1828 A. D.) witnessed the First Burmese War as a result of which the British acquired Assam, Arakan, and Tenasserim, and made Manipur and Cachar British protectorates.

Lord William Bentinck (1828—1835 A. D.) succeeded Lord Amherst. He followed a policy of non-intervention in the affairs of Indian States. However, Bentinck was compelled by forces of circumstances to take over the entire administration of the Mysore State and annexed two smaller States, Cachar and Coorg. In the case of Mysore, the Raja proved himself incompetent and he was pensioned off. Coorg was annexed because of the misgovernment of its ruler. The occasion for the annexation of Cachar was the death of its ruler without heirs. Bentinck also concluded defensive alliances with the Amir of Sind and Ranjit Singh, the Sikh ruler of the Punjab. These treaties opened the Indus and the Sutlej to British commerce.

Sir Charles Metcalfe was Governor-General from 1835 to 1836 A. D. His short term of office did not see any extension of British supremacy in India. Lord Auckland (1836—42 A. D.) the next Governor-General, waged the first Afghan War with the object of bringing Afghanistan under British control. Lord Auckland's Afghan policy was the outcome of a fear that the Russians might seek to invade India through Persia and Afghanistan. This and the refusal of Dost Muhammad, the Amir of Afghanistan, to entertain favourably a commercial treaty proposed by the British, led Auckland



≡ British Expansion—India in 1836 A. D.

to declare war on Afghanistan. The British army enthroned Shah Shuja in 1839 A. D. But the Afghans resisted this, routed the British army stationed in Afghanistan and killed Shah Shuja.

Lord Ellenborough (1842—1844 A. D.), Auckland's successor, soon after his arrival, took steps to retrieve the British prestige. He re-occupied Kabul. But Dost Muhammad was allowed to return to Afghanistan unconditionally and to resume the throne. Ellenborough next deliberately provoked a war against Sind so that he might annex it. Vague charges of disaffection were brought against the Amirs, and Sir Charles Napier was sent to Sind with full civil and military powers in 1842 A. D. The army of the Amirs was defeated in two actions, viz., at Miani and Dabo, and Sind was annexed to the British empire. Ellenborough also defeated Gwalior in two battles at Maharajpur and Paniar. A new treaty was concluded by which the army of Gwalior was greatly reduced, and as the ruler was a minor, the administration of Gwalior was placed under a regency council which was to follow the advice of the Resident.

Lord Hardinge (1844—1848 A. D.) a veteran soldier of the Peninsular War came to India as the successor of Ellenborough. The chief event of his administration was the First Sikh War. The Sikhs were defeated and compelled to sue for peace. By the treaty of Lahore all the lands on the British side of the Sutlej were ceded to the English, together with the Jullundur Doab (the land between the Sutlej and the Bias). The Sikhs were to pay an indemnity of a million and a half sterling. The Sikhs surrendered Kashmir to the English in payment of one million sterling.

Thus, the years from 1823 to 1848 A. D. saw a further growth of British power in India.

LORD DALHOUSIE (1848—1856 A. D.)

Lord Dalhousie succeeded Lord Hardinge as Governor-General in January 1848. He was one of the chief architects of the British empire in India. When he came to India, he was only 35 years old, and was the youngest Governor-General who had so far held the post. He was a man of extra-ordinary energy and iron will. He was a vigorous annexationist who employed all the means of spreading the empire paying scant respect to public opinion as well as the views of his own advisers. He was unscrupulous in achieving his objectives. He waged two great wars which resulted in the annexation of the Punjab and Lower Burma to the British Indian empire. Besides, he brought under British control and administration a large number of States previously ruled by independent princes. Indeed, his eight years' rule "left more conspicuous results than that of any Governor-General since Wellesley."

Wars

In 1849 A. D. Delhi despatched a military expedition against Sikkim where two Englishmen were killed by people. This expedition resulted in the occupation of a part of Sikkim.

The Sikhs did not like the ascendancy of the British established over the Punjab as a result of the First Sikh War, and they were waiting for an opportunity to revolt. The first rebellion broke out at Multan where Mulraj, the Governor of Multan, took up arms against the British. In the war that followed known as the Second Sikh War (1848—1849 A. D.) the Sikhs were routed in the battles of Chilianwala and Gujarat. Dalhousie then annexed the Punjab to the British dominion.

Dalhousie's Governor-Generalship saw the Second Burmese War, 1852. A. D., also. The Burmese King Tharawaddy often insulted the British Residents and systematically harassed the British merchants. The Governor-General despatched the Sikh and Madras regiments to Rangoon and conquered Pegu (Lower Burma). Without any formal treaty with the Burmese king, the province of Pegu was annexed to the British empire.

The Doctrine of Lapse

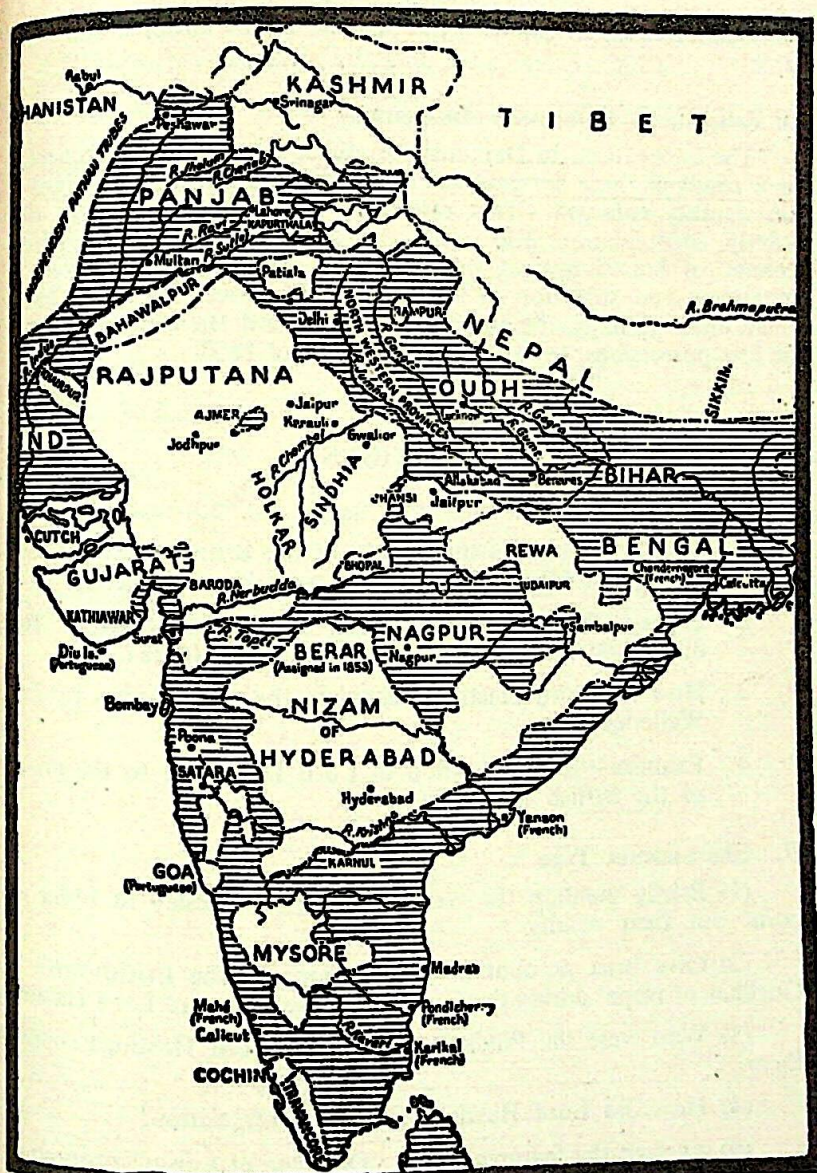
Dalhousie wanted to annex as many Native States as possible and bring them under the direct rule of the Company. With this object in view, Dalhousie propounded the "Doctrine of Lapse." According to it, 'dependent States' passed back or 'lapsed' to the paramount power on the failure of natural heirs of the royal line. In other words, Dalhousie refused to recognize the right of adoption in the case of dependent States. He held that the failure of natural heirs of the royal line in such States was a legitimate opportunity to annex them. Dalhousie applied the doctrine to all those subsidiary States where rulers happened to die without direct male heirs to succeed them. Thus Satara was annexed in 1848 A. D., Jaipur and Sambalpur in 1849 A. D., Baghat in 1850 A. D., Udaipur in 1852 A. D., Jhansi in 1853 A. D., and Nagpur in 1854 A. D.

Other Annexations

Dalhousie resorted to annexation on grounds of misgovernment. Oudh was annexed in 1856 A. D., on the ground of persistent misgovernment of the country. Oudh had been kept as a protected feudatory State since Wellesley's treaty of 1801 A. D. This treaty was now brushed aside without any consideration for the loyalty of the ruling house. The ruler of Oudh was called upon to sign a treaty handing over the whole State and when he refused, the British forcibly assumed control of Oudh.

Another form of annexation was by assignment. In 1853 A. D. when the Nizam of Hyderabad failed to pay the subsidiary dues, he was forced to assign Berar to the Company in settlement of the Company's claims under a perpetual lease.

Besides these acquisitions, Dalhousie swept away certain titular sovereignties which ceased to have any real meaning. On the death



≡ British Expansion from 1813 to 1857 A. D.

of the Nawab of the Karnatak the government of Madras refused to recognize the successor on the plea that the title was only personal and not hereditary. The title of the Raja of Tanjore was also abolished in 1855 A. D. On the death of Baji Rao II, the ex-Peshwa,

Dalhousie refused to continue the pension to his adopted son Nana Sahib.

An Estimate of Dalhousie's Annexations

The annexations of Dalhousie produced important consequences. As a result of these annexations, the British empire in India became considerably enlarged. This extension went hand in hand with orderly consolidation also. But the annexations produced bitter feelings of hatred against the English. They caused a feeling of uneasiness and suspicion in the minds of princes all over India. Their bitter feelings, the thirst for revenge and the desire to regain the lost possessions, led to the great Revolt of 1857.

QUESTIONS

I. Essay Type

1. Give an account of the growth of the British power in India during the Governor-Generalship of Lord Wellesley.
2. Explain the subsidiary system of Lord Wellesley. How did it help the growth of British power in India?
3. How did Lord Hastings complete the work begun by Lord Wellesley?
4. Examine the contribution of Lord Dalhousie to the growth of the British empire in India.

II. Short-answer Type

- (1) Briefly mention the wars waged by Wellesley in India and point out their results.
- (2) Give brief account of the relations of the British with the Gurkhas of Nepal during the Governor-Generalship of Lord Hastings.
- (3) Who were the Pindaris? How did Lord Hastings suppress them?
- (4) How did Lord Hastings crush the Mahrattas?
- (5) Explain the features of the "Doctrine of Lapse" propounded by Lord Dalhousie. How did it help the growth of British power?

III. Objective Type

A. Name the following:

- (a) The districts ceded by the Nizam of Hyderabad to the East India Company.

- (b) The States annexed by Wellesley by mediatization.
- (c) The territories ceded to the British by the Gurkhas in 1816 A. D.
- (d) The three chief leaders of the Pindaris.

B. Match the following:

A

B

1. Wellesley

Doctrine of Lapse

2. Hastings

Subsidiary system

3. Dalhousie

Subordinate co-operation

Map Questions

2. Indicate on the map provided British Expansion up to 1813 A. D.

2. Indicate on the map proved on British Expansion from 1813 to 1857 A. D.

CHAPTER XXI

The Anglo-Mahratta Wars

In the Third Battle of Panipat, 1761 A. D. the Mahrattas suffered a disastrous defeat. But the Mahratta power soon recovered from this blow. Madhava Rao, the son of Balaji Baji Rao, who became Peshwa was a capable commander as well as a good statesman. He made his influence felt in the Deccan by his successful warfare against the Nizam of Hyderabad and Haider Ali of Mysore, and kept up the Mahratta confederacy for a decade after Panipat. In 1772 A. D. Madhava Rao died at the early age of 28. In the words of Grant Duff, "The plains of Panipat were not more fatal to the Mahratta empire than the early end of this excellent prince". The struggle that followed over the succession to the Peshwaship weakened the Mahrattas, and broke up their unity. The power of the Peshwa declined and Mahratta Chiefs like the Bhonsle, the Gaekwar, the Scindia and the Holkar rose to prominence.

The First Anglo-Mahratta War (1775-1782 A. D.)

After the death of Madhava Rao, his brother Narayana Rao became the Peshwa. But the succession of Narayana Rao was challenged by his uncle Raghunath Rao, familiarly known as Raghoba. Raghunatha Rao murdered Narayana Rao and assumed power. The widow of the murdered Narayana Rao gave birth to a posthumous child, and a keen contest for Peshwaship arose between the adherents of the infant and Raghoba. A faction in the court headed by Nana Fadnavis proclaimed the child as Peshwa under the title of Madhava Rao II. A Regency Council headed by Nana Fadnavis carried on the administration. Raghunatha Rao was defeated and driven out of Poona. He fled to the English in Bombay with whom he entered into a treaty known as the Treaty of Surat in 1775 A. D. By this treaty the Bombay government agreed to help Raghunatha Rao in getting the Peshwaship, and Raghunatha Rao agreed to cede to the British government Salsette and Bassein in return for British help.

The Calcutta Council condemned this action of the Bombay government in interfering with the affairs of the Mahrattas and concluded another treaty known as the Treaty of Purandhar, 1776 A. D. by which the English agreed to abandon the cause

of Raghunatha Rao on condition of being allowed to retain Salsette. Hastings agreed with the Council in condemning the Treaty of Surat, but as the war had already begun, he desired to push it to a successful conclusion. The directors approved of the Treaty of Surat and Hastings decided to continue the alliance with Raghunatha Rao to wage war in his favour.

War began in 1778 A. D. The Mahrattas defeated the inadequate force of the Bombay government and compelled them to sign the disgraceful Convention of Wargaon in January 1779 by which all the possessions obtained by the Bombay government since 1773 A. D. were given up, and Raghunatha Rao was to be surrendered to the Mahrattas. Hastings disallowed the Convention and continued the war. An army under General Goddard crossed the Narmada, and in alliance with the Gaekwar of Baroda, captured Bassein. In central India Major Popham captured the Scindia's capital, Gwalior. Hastings offered generous terms to the Scindia in order to detach him from the Poona court. The Scindia undertook to negotiate a treaty between the English and Poona government. Hastings welcomed the Scindia's mediation. The first Anglo-Mahratta War was brought to a close by the famous Treaty of Salbai in 1782. By it the English restored all the territories they had conquered since the Treaty of Purandhar and retained Salsettee. They recognised Madhava Rao II as the rightful Peshwa. Raghunatha Rao was pensioned off. It was also provided that the Peshwa was to compel Haidar Ali to give up the territories he had conquered from the Nawab of Arcot.

The treaty of Salbai was a diplomatic triumph of the British. It established peace between the English and the Mahrattas for a period of twenty years which enabled the British to fight their other enemies under comparatively favourable conditions. It was this treaty that gave a free hand to the English to deal with Haidar Ali.

As a result of the war, the prestige and authority of the Poona government diminished. The unity of the Mahratta nation was gone. The empire became a loose confederacy of regional states ruled by the Scindia the Holkar, the Bhonsle and the Gaekwar. Mahdaji Scindia emerged as the most powerful factor in Mahratta politics in North India.

From Salbai to Bassein, 1782—1802 A. D.

After the war, Nana Fadnavis retained full control over the Poona government. The young Peshwa Madhava Rao II remained a puppet. He died suddenly in 1795 A. D. This tragedy left the powerful minister as the indispensable pilot of the State. During the post-Salbai period the Poona government under Nana Fadnavis engaged in three wars. The first was the joint Mahratta-Nizam war against Tipu, 1785-87 A. D. At the conclusion of the war Tipu agreed

to pay arrears of tribute amounting to Rs. 48 lakhs and to make certain territorial cessions to the Peshwa and the Nizam. The second was the Third Anglo-Mysore war, 1790-92 A. D., in which the Mahrattas and the Nizam were allies of the English against Tipu. By the treaty of Srirangapatnam which ended the war the Mahrattas got the territory between Wardha and the Krishna. The third was the war against the Nizam, culminating in the Mahratta victory at Kharda in 1795 A. D.

During this period the power and influence of Mahdaji Scindia increased greatly. As he was the chief instrument in the conclusion of the treaty of Salbai, he was officially recognised as the guarantor for the implementation of the terms of this treaty. He thus acquired a special position in the eyes of the English. As Nana Fadnavis enjoyed a monopoly of power at Poona, Mahdaji kept himself away from the Peshwa's capital. Mahdaji realised that the ultimate conflict in India would be between the Mahrattas and the British. To meet such a crisis he maintained a huge army trained on European lines. In 1784 he secured the Regency of the Mughal Empire; Delhi and the puppet Emperor Shah Alam II came under his control. In 1788 A. D. a Rohilla chief named Ghulam Qadir seized Delhi, and deposed and blinded Shah Alam. But Mahdaji re-occupied Delhi and restored Shah Alam to his throne. Ghulam Qadir was captured and killed. The restoration of Mahdaji's authority at Delhi was followed by his victories over the Rajputs and the Holkar. After consolidating his power in Hindustan he went to Poona in 1792 A. D. where he secured valuable privileges from the Peshwa's government. Mahdaji Scindia died in 1794 A. D.

In December 1796 Baji Rao II, son of Raghunatha Rao, secured Peshwaship. He was a worthless and cowardly person, and was altogether unfit for Peshwaship. During the period of the Peshwaship of Baji Rao II, the disputes that were going on among the Mahrattas came to a head. All the great men and women who had played a dominant part in the Mahratta affairs had passed away. They were not succeeded by equally eminent people. When Mahdaji Scindia died in 1794 A. D., it was Daulat Rao Scindia, a boy of 14, who succeeded him. Ahalya Bai, daughter-in-law of Malhar Rao Holkar, who administered the Holkar dominions with great success for a period of about thirty years died in 1795 A. D. As she died childless, the control of the State passed on to the commander of her troops, Tukoji Holkar. Tukoji died two years later in 1797 A. D. After some confusion, one of his sons, Jaswant Rao Holkar, seized power. In 1797 A. D. Baji Rao II tried to assert himself by arresting and confining Nana Fadnavis. However, he was restored to office in 1798 A. D., and he passed away in March 1800. After the death of Nana Fadnavis the Poona government lost direction, purpose and foresight. Thus, the Mahratta country presented a scene of terrible confusion.

There was old rancour between the Holkars and the Scindias. Both Jaswant Rao Holkar and Daulat Rao Scindia, now tried to gain upper hand in Poona affairs and went to war with each other. The Peshwa Baji Rao II favoured the Scindia, but the Holkar inflicted a signal defeat on the united forces of the Peshwa, and the Scindia at the battle of Poona in 1802 A. D. Baji Rao fled for refuge to Bassein and appealed to the English for help. By the Treaty of Bassein signed on 31 December 1802 he entered into the subsidiary alliance with the British on the usual terms. Baji Rao was restored to the Peshwaship with the help of a British force.

The Second Anglo-Mahratta War (1803-1805 A. D.)

The Treaty of Bassein by which the Peshwa acknowledged the British paramount power roused the anger of the other Mahratta chieftains. However, even in this hour of common peril, the Mahratta chiefs were unable to unite against the common enemy. The Gaekwar held aloof, and the Scindia and the Holkar would not co-operate. Only the Bhonsle and the Scindia were earnest. Wellesley ordered them to separate their forces, and on their refusal he declared war in 1803 A. D.

Wellesley chalked out a comprehensive plan of attack. He made Deccan under Arthur Wellesley and Hindustan under general Lake the two main theatres of war. Arthur Wellesley captured Ahmadnagar in 1803 A. D. by defeating the combined forces of the Scindia and the Bhonsle at Assaye. Then pursuing the enemy into Berar, he defeated them at Argaon and captured the fortress of Gawaligarh. The campaigns in Hindustan were also equally victorious. General Lake captured Aligarh, defeated the Scindia's troops in the battle of Delhi and took under his protection the old Mughal emperor, Shah Alam. The English won a great victory against the Mahrattas at Laswari also. The Scindia now signed the treaty of Surji Anjengaon. Both the Bhonsle and the Scindia received British residents at their courts and gave up all their claims on the Nizam.

The Holkar was still holding aloof, and on his plundering the territories of the Raja of Jaipur, Wellesley declared war on him. The English were beaten in the early stages of the war. Then General Lake defeated the Holkar at Farrukhabad. He also launched an attack on Bharatpur whose Raja had deserted the British side. In spite of repeated assaults, the fortress could not be taken and the General was forced to make peace with the Raja. The Home Government which had disapproved of Wellesley's forward policies now recalled him. His successors Cornwallis and Barlow followed a policy of non-intervention. Barlow concluded a treaty with the Holkar giving back to him his possessions. A new treaty was entered into with the Scindia abandoning the subsidiary alliance. These new treaties

with the Holkar and the Scindia were merely treaties of friendship and they imposed no restrictions on their mutual relations.

The Third Anglo-Mahratta War (1817-1819 A. D.)

The Peshwa Baji Rao II whom the English had restored at Poona in 1802 A. D. was anxious to place himself at the head of the Mahratta Confederacy. He was instigated in his plans by his minister Trimbakji. In 1815 A.D. Trimbakji brought about the murder of Gangadhar Sastri, minister of the Gaekwar of Baroda, who visited Poona under a British safe conduct. Baji Rao's complicity in the murder was strongly suspected. Elphinstone, the Resident of Poona, forced the Peshwa to surrender Trimbakji to the governor of Bombay. The British forced the Peshwa to sign a subsidiary alliance in 1817 A. D. surrendering more territory and to give his claim for the headship of the Mahratta Confederacy. The regent of Nagpur, Apa Sahib, was forced to enter in to a subsidiary alliance with the British. The Scindia also was forced to sign a treaty by which he promised to give help against the Pindaris.

The Peshwa now rose in rebellion expecting the support of other Mahratta chieftains. He attacked the British Residency, but was defeated at Kirkee. Meanwhile, Apa Sahib of Nagpur declared war against the British. He was defeated in the Sitabaldi hills and forced to surrender. The Holkar responded to the Peshwa's appeal for help. But his forces were crushed at Mahidpur. Both the Scindia and the Holkar signed new treaties with the English by which they ceded large portions of their territories. The Peshwa kept up a desperate fight, but he was defeated at Ashti and Koregaon. The capture of the fort of Asirgarh in 1819 A. D. ended the war.

Baji Rao's dominions were annexed. The Peshwa was dethroned and he was granted a pension of eight lakhs of rupees a year. The office of Peshwa was abolished and a portion of the territory taken from Baji Rao was formed in to a new State called Satara with Pratapa Singh, a descendant of Shivaji, as its ruler. Apa Shaib of Nagpur was deposed and a new Rajah was set up on the throne. The Narbada territories of the Bhonsle were annexed. The Holkar entered into a subsidiary treaty with the British.

The most important result of these wars was the dissolution of the Mahratta Confederacy and the establishment of British supremacy over all the Mahratta chiefs and their territories. The whole of India, except Kashmir, Sind, and the Punjab, now came under British paramountcy.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Give an account of the Anglo-Mahratta relations up to 1816 A. D.

Short-answer Type

1. What led to the First Anglo-Mahratta War? Point out the results of the war.
2. Give an account of the Second Mahratta War.
3. Narrate the events leading to the Third Mahratta War. State the results of the war.

Objective Type**A. Name the following:**

(a) The son of Balaji Baji Rao who became the Peshwa after the Third Battle of Panipat.

(b) The brother of Madhava Rao who succeeded him as the Peshwa.

(c) The head of the Regency Council when Madhava Rao II was the Peshwa.

B. Match the following:**A****B**

1. The Calcutta Council

Bombay government

2. The Convention of
WargaonThe Treaty of Purandhar
1776 A. D..

3. The Treaty of Salbai

The end of the Third Anglo-
Maharatta war..

4. Ashti and Koregaon

Triumph of the British.

CHAPTER XXII

Ranjit Singh, Sind and the Punjab

Around the middle of the nineteenth century A. D., the Sikh community took full advantage of the political situation prevailing in the Punjab and consolidated their power. The Sikh commonwealth was divided into a number of brotherhoods called *misls* of which twelve were considered to be foremost in rank. These twelve *misls* held among themselves the greater portion of the Punjab and Sirhind. One of these twelve *misls* under its leader Ranjit Singh accomplished the task of subduing the others and giving political unity to the Sikhs.

RANJIT SINGH

Ranjit Singh was the son of Maha Singh, the chief of one of the minor *misls*. He was born in 1780 A. D. When Maha Singh died in 1792 A. D., Ranjit Singh succeeded to the headship of his clan while still a boy of twelve years. In his seventeenth year Ranjit Singh asserted himself and began his career of petty warfare and systematic aggression. He joined Zaman Shah of Kabul when the latter invaded the Punjab in 1798 A. D. The invasion failed, but Ranjit Singh was able to occupy Lahore in 1799 A. D. He took the title of Maharajah in 1801 A. D. He acquired Amritsar, the holy city of the Sikhs in 1802 A. D. Taking advantage of the dethronement of Zaman Shah in 1803 A. D., Ranjit Singh marched westwards and occupied Jhang and Sahiwal. Between 1803 and 1806 A. D., his victorious career grew unchecked and his conquests extended to the banks of the Sutlej. In 1806 A. D. Ranjit Singh signed the Treaty of Lahore with Sir George Barlow by which he agreed to withdraw his support to Jaswant Rao Holkar who had taken refuge at Amritsar. The British, in return, promised to respect the territorial integrity of the Sikh kingdom.

Treaty of Amritsar 1809 A. D.

The region between the Sutlej and the Jumna is called Sirhind. The Sikh kingdoms of this region were called Cis-Sutlej States. Nabha, Jhind, and Patiala were prominent among them. Ranjit Singh claimed authority to arbitrate in the differences among the rulers of Sirhind. Taking advantage of the conflict between Nabha and Patiala, he crossed the Sutlej and occupied Ludhiana in 1807 A. D. These regions had passed into the British hands when the

Scindia gave up his claims over them after the Second Anglo-Mahratta War. Hence, Lord Minto wanted to prevent the Maharaja's influence from spreading to the east of the Sutlej. Lord Minto sent Charles Metcalfe on a mission to Ranjit Singh. Simultaneously, he despatched British troops under Sir David Ochterlony to the Punjab border. In 1809 A. D. Ranjit Singh was forced to accept the Treaty of Amritsar by which Ranjit Singh agreed to confine his activities to the region west of the Sutlej and recognised British protection over the Cis-Sutlej States. The treaty pushed the British frontier from the Jumna to the Sutlej. A British garrison was stationed at Ludhiana. Ranjit Singh had to abandon his most cherished ambition of establishing his unquestioned authority over all the Sikhs.

Ranjit Singh then directed his attention to the north-west and the west. After two years of successful wars with the Gurkhas he captured the Kangra district and in 1813 A. D. acquired Attock. He then conquered Multan in the same year and occupied Kashmir in 1819 A. D. and reduced Peshawar in 1823 A. D. Thus by the year 1824 A. D., the largest part of the Indus Valley formed part of his empire. In 1831 A. D. when the British feared that the Russians wanted to attack India, Lord William Bentinck met Ranjit Singh at Rupar on the Sutlej and renewed the treaty of alliance with him. Bentinck turned down the suggestion of Ranjit Singh for the partition of Sind between himself and the British. Lord Auckland rejected the request of Dost Muhammad for British help to recover Peshawar which Ranjit Singh had taken from the Afghans. He did not want to provoke the Maharajah on that issue. Instead, Auckland concluded a tripartite treaty with Shah Shuja and Ranjit Singh to dethrone Dost Muhammad and reinstate Shah Shuja on the throne of Kabul. But Ranjit Singh did not extend active support to his allies. He refused permission to the British armies to pass through his kingdom. At the time of his death in 1839 A. D. his empire extended from the Khybur pass to the banks of the Sutlej and from Sind to Little Tibet.

Ranjit Singh as an Administrator

Ranjit Singh was great as an administrator also. It was his genius that made the Sikhs a formidable military power. He maintained a big standing army trained according to European methods of warfare. He employed European officers to train his men. He adopted strict measures to keep the powerful feudal chieftains under control. He reorganized the finances of the State on a sound basis and encouraged commerce and industry. The city of Amritsar became a flourishing centre of trade. Justice was impartially administered. Fines were levied, but imprisonment and capital punishment were unknown.

An Estimate of Ranjit Singh

Ranjit Singh is one of the most colourful characters in the history of modern India. He was capable of hard work. But he was addicted to liquor and had also been accused of immorality, selfishness, greed and cruelty. In spite of these weaknesses, he was endowed with some of the most conspicuous signs and characteristics of greatness. He began his career in a small way, but he became one of the most powerful rulers of India in his days and rightly deserved the title the "Lion of the Punjab". He found the Punjab torn by factions, and organized it into a powerful and united State. It is true that the kingdom which he built up collapsed soon after his death. But the responsibility for this lay on his successors who were incapable of maintaining the delicate balance he had established in Anglo-Sikh relations.

BRITISH CONQUEST OF SIND

Sind is the name given to the country lying on both sides of the Indus south of the Punjab. Since the end of the eighteenth century A. D. the country was ruled by the Amirs of Sind who originally belonged to Baluchistan. The prominent among them were the Talpur Amirs of Hyderabad, Khairpur and Mirpur. The suzerainty exercised over the territory by the rulers of Afghanistan, originally imposed by Ahamadshah Abdali, was nominal. The English had, for many years, cast longing eyes on Sind.

The political relations of the British with Sind began in 1809 A. D., when Lord Minto sent an embassy to the Amirs and concluded a treaty "establishing eternal friendship between the contracting parties" and providing for the exclusion of the French from Sind. This treaty was renewed in 1820 A. D. The political and commercial importance of the Lower Indus Valley was brought to the notice of the British government for the first time in 1831 A. D. by Alexander Burns who undertook a journey up the Indus *enroute* to Lahore. Ranjit Singh had his eyes on Sind. But the British were not prepared to tolerate any further increase in Ranjit Singh's power. In 1831 A. D. they opposed his proposal for a partition of Sind. It seemed that the most effective way to keep the Sikhs at a distance was to bring Sind within the sphere of British influence. In 1832 A. D. Lord William Bentinck concluded a treaty with the Amir of Hyderabad which permitted the British to use the Indus for the sole purpose of trade and commerce. In 1834 A. D. this treaty was renewed. In 1838 A. D. Lord Auckland concluded a treaty with the Amirs who now agreed to accept a British Resident at Hyderabad. By the Tripartite Treaty of 1838 A. D. Shah Shuja renounced his suzerainty over Sind. Lord Auckland compelled the Amirs to pay a large sum in return for this. In 1839 A. D. the Amirs were compelled to accept a treaty by which they were virtually placed under British protection. Although the treaty of 1832 prohibited the use of the

Indus for the conveyance of military force during the First Afghan War (1839—1840 A. D.), Lord Auckland violated this treaty by marching British troops through Sind.

Annexation of Sind (1843 A. D.)

Although the British army suffered destruction in the First Afghan War, the Amirs did not create any trouble to the British. But they were accused of disloyalty and Lord Ellenborough sent Sir Charles Napier to deal with them. Napier forced upon them a new treaty compelling them to cede the greater portion of their territories and to give up the right of coining money. In order to intimidate the Amirs, Napier then marched upon the fort of Imangarh and razed it to the ground. Having been provoked by the high-handedness of Charles Napier, the Baluchis attacked the Residency. Napier now got a pretext for the war which he was provoking. Open war ensued. The army of the Amirs was defeated in two actions at Miani in February 1843 and at Dabo in March 1843. Sind was then annexed to the British empire.

The British policy in regard to Sind was clearly high-handed and unjust. The Court of Directors disapproved the conduct of Ellenborough and Napier, but did not revise the annexation, because it brought political and commercial advantages to the British.

THE SIKH WARS AND THE CONQUEST OF THE PUNJAB

The First Sikh War (1845—1846 A. D.)

The death of Ranjit Singh in 1839 A. D. was followed by six years of anarchy and confusion at Lahore. A series of revolutions took place resulting in the murder of kings and ministers. The army made and unmade kings according to its wishes. At last, in 1845 A. D., the army acknowledged Duleep Singh, a five-year old son of Ranjit Singh, as the ruler. His mother Jindan acted as the regent with the help of her favourite and prime minister, Lal Singh. Real power, however, was in the hands of the commander-in-chief, Tej Singh. The queen who was afraid of the army thought that the army would be weakened if it fought against the British, and hence encouraged it to invade the British territory. The British activities on the frontier also provoked the invasion. The Sikh army crossed the Sutlej in December 1845. Thereupon Lord Hardinge declared war against the Sikhs.

The British were unprepared, and this helped the Sikh army to enter Ferozepore unmolested. Governor-General Hardinge ordered the British army at Ambala and Ludhiana to go to the rescue of Ferozepore. The first battle was fought at Mudki and the British won it after a tough fight. The Sikhs were again defeated at Feroze Shah, and this was followed by another brilliant victory for the

British at Ailwal in January 1846. The final battle was fought at Sobraon in which the Khalsa army was completely defeated. Hardinge entered Lahore on 20 February 1846, and the war ended by the treaty of Lahore.

By the Treaty of Lahore the Sikhs ceded to the British all territories to the left of the Sutlej i. e., the Doab between the Sutlej and the Beas including Jullunder. The Sikhs also had to pay an indemnity of a crore and a half of rupees. As the treasury could furnish only half a crore, the Sikhs ceded Kashmir to the British. The English gave Kashmir to Gulab Singh, the Rajah of Kashmir, in return for one crore of rupees. The treaty also provided for a reduction in the strength of the Sikh army. The Sikhs were also to accept a British Resident at Lahore. Sir Henry Lawrence was made the Resident. A council of Regency consisting of 8 chiefs presided over by Lawrence was to administer the Punjab during the minority of Duleep Singh. In effect, Lawrence became the ruler of the Punjab.

The Second Sikh War (1848—1849 A. D.)

The Sikhs did not like the British ascendancy in the Punjab. They believed that they were not in any way inferior to the British in war and they attributed their defeat to the treachery of their leaders. They had only been beaten in war and had not been crushed, and were waiting for an opportunity to revolt. The retirement of Lawrence and Hardinge at this critical period emboldened the Khalsa army to revolt. Trouble soon broke out at Multan.

Mulraj, the Governor of Multan, was charged with misappropriation of public money. The British Resident at Lahore ordered him to render accounts for the previous ten years. Whereas Mulraj was in that post for only four years, Mulraj refused to oblige the British and resigned.

The two British officers sent to Multan to instal a new Sikh governor were murdered. Disaffection spread throughout the country. Rani Jindan was charged with complicity in the Multan affair and was deported to Banaras. This hurt the national pride of the Sikhs and soon the whole of the Punjab was ablaze. The British Resident sent Sher Singh with a large army to help the British soldiers. But the army went over bodily to the side of Mulraj. Dalhousie thereupon declared war against the Sikhs. The Sikhs obtained assistance from Amir Dost Mohammad of Afghanistan. The British forces under Lord Gough suffered a defeat at Ramnagar on the Chenab in November 1848. In January 1849 the British and the Sikhs again met in the battle field of Chillianwala, and here the English again lost heavily. But Gough scored a great victory at Gujarat near the Chenab in February 1849. Mulraj and Sher Singh surrendered. By a proclamation issued in March 1849 the whole of the Punjab

was annexed to the British dominion. Duleep Singh, the ruler, was deposed and given a pension of Rs. 5 lakhs a year.

The administration of the Punjab was entrusted to a board of three commissioners, with Sir Henry Lawrence as its head. The Sikhs were disarmed. The system of civil and criminal justice was reformed, and mutilation and torture were abolished. The land was surveyed and the rights of peasantry were recorded carefully. Canals were constructed and a system of State forests was introduced. Schools were started and attempts were made to introduce social reform among the Sikhs. Slavery, Thuggee, Sati, female infanticide and dacoity were abolished. Under the new set up considerable material progress was achieved in the Punjab.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Outline the career and work of Ranjit Singh.
2. Sketch the relations of Ranjit Singh with the British and estimate his statesmanship.
3. Give an account of the British conquest of Sind.
4. What were the causes and results of the First Sikh War?
5. Give an account of the Second Sikh War.

Short-answer Type

1. Point out the circumstances leading to the treaty of Amritsar, 1809 A. D. What is the significance of the Treaty?
2. Mention the work of Ranjit Singh as an administrator.

Objective Type

A. Name the following:

- (a) The father of Ranjit Singh
- (b) The British commander who effected the annexation of Sind to the British empire.
- (c) The son of Ranjit Singh who was acknowledged by the army as ruler.
- (d) The Rajah of Kashmir to whom the English gave Kashmir for one crore of rupees.

B. Match the following:

A

1. Ranjit Singh
2. Ellenborough
3. Duleep Singh
4. Sir Henry Lawrence

B

Annexation of Sind
The Lion of the Punjab
British Resident at Lahore
Rani Jindan

CHAPTER XXIII

Modernisation of India

The foundations of British administration in Bengal were laid by Warren Hastings and Cornwallis. The period from the Governor-Generalship of Cornwallis to the outbreak of the upheaval of 1857 saw a steady expansion of British power in India. By the close of the Governor-Generalship of Lord Dalhousie, 1856 A. D., the British empire in India practically covered the whole of India, the major portion being directly administered by the Company and the remaining portion being administered by rulers who acknowledged the suzerainty of the British. Simultaneously with the expansion of territorial power, the modernisation of the Company administration was achieved by successive Governors-General by the introduction of salutary reform measures. Among the Governors-General who secured the modernisation of India through progressive reform measures, the names of Lord Hastings, Lord William Bentinck and Lord Dalhousie stand out prominently.

LORD HASTINGS (1813—1823 A. D.)

Lord Hastings made a mark on the administrative history of India by introducing several useful reforms. In introducing reform measures, the Governor-General was ably assisted by capable administrators such as Sir Thomas Munro, Mount Stuart Elphinstone, Sir John Malcolm and Sir Charles Metcalfe.

Land Revenue Administration

The Permanent Revenue Settlement of Cornwallis had adversely affected the peasants in many ways. Lord Hastings took steps to protect the rights of peasants against the zamindars of Bengal. Sir Thomas Munro who served as the Governor of Madras introduced in Madras the *ryotwari* system by which ryots directly paid the land-revenue to the government without any intermediaries. In the Bombay province Mount Stuart Elphinstone fixed the land revenue after careful survey of the land.

Judicial Administration

Hastings introduced several reforms in the judicial administration. He entrusted the district collectors with majesterial powers which

Cornwallis had taken away. He found that the number of undecided cases in law-courts was growing day after day, and to remedy this situation, made provision for a Munsiff Court in every *Thana*. The civil procedure code was simplified in order to make the disposal of cases quick and easy. Hastings recognized the value of the village panchayats in the settlement of local disputes, and revived the village community system in Bombay and Madras.

Education and Culture

Lord Hastings promoted the cause of education in different ways. He established several vernacular schools near Calcutta. He encouraged the establishment of the Hindu College at Calcutta to teach Indians modern sciences. A missionary College was founded at Serampore. Hastings lifted the censorship of the press imposed by Wellesley. *Samachar Darpan*, a Bengali Weekly, was founded in Calcutta in 1818 A. D.

Public Works

Lord Hastings undertook the construction of new roads, canals and bridges, and improved the sanitation of Calcutta. Hastings reorganized the finances of the Company. He introduced measures of economy and retrenchment.

An Estimate

The efforts of Lord Hastings to ensure a progressive administration in India proved successful. By his manifold achievements, his "name and fame deservedly rank only just below the greatest in the roll of Governors-General."

LORD WILLIAM BENTINCK (1828—1835 A. D.)

Lord William Bentinck served as Governor of Madras in 1803—1807 A. D. He was censured and recalled by the Court of Directors for his failure to deal with the Vellore Mutiny satisfactorily. He came back to India as Governor-General in 1828 A. D. He was a liberal-minded man, inspired by the liberal spirit of the Catholic emancipation and Parliamentary reform in England. The Charter Act of 1833 which renewed the Company's Charter contained liberal provisions to ensure the progressive administration of the territories administered by the Company. The Act proclaimed that the interests of Indians are to be given preference to those of the Europeans, whenever the two clashed. It also urged that Indians should be employed in administrative work wherever possible. When Bentinck came to India as Governor-General an atmosphere of comparative peace prevailed in the country. Bentinck made use of the opportunity for establishing a benevolent administration and introducing social and educational reforms of a far-reaching nature.

Financial Measures

The wars of Lord Hastings and the First Burmese War (1824 A. D.) of Lord Amherst had shattered the finances of the Company administration. Bentinck was called upon to improve the financial position. Effecting economy and increasing the revenues became the watch-words of his administration. He introduced many measures of economy. He withdrew the double 'batta' or field allowance enjoyed by the army officers in times of peace. He abolished a few unnecessary posts and reduced the salaries of civil servants. He increased the revenues of the Company by regulating the opium trade. He introduced the system of licences to export opium from Malwa to Bombay. He made the opium trade a monopoly of the State. He established a Board of Revenue at Allahabad. The Board made revenue settlements in the newly-acquired North-western Province. By these measures, a surplus of two million sterling was effected in the place of a deficit of twenty million during the Amherst's time.

Civil Administration

Bentinck introduced important changes in civil administration. He abolished the provincial appeal and circuit courts established by Cornwallis, as he found that they did not function properly. He remodelled the judiciary and eliminated the three great evils of delay, expense and uncertainty. He set up a separate Sadr Court at Allahabad for the North Western Provinces. He permitted the use of vernacular languages in the courts in the place of Persian. He completed the work of combining the offices of the District Magistrate and the Collector which had been begun by Lord Hastings. Bentinck employed educated Indians in the higher posts in the East India Company service.

Education

Lord Bentinck's policy of employing Indians in high offices could be carried out only if a sufficient number of educated Indians were available. So far the government had not recognized English as the medium of instruction. Opinion was sharply divided on the subject. The Orientalists headed by H. H. Wilson favoured Indian learning while the Anglicists headed by Sir Charles Trevelyn pressed for the introduction of a sound liberal education through the medium of English. The controversy was ended by the famous minute of Macaulay, Law Member of the Governor Generals' Council. He favoured the introduction of English education. His view was accepted by the Governor-General. In a resolution passed on 7 March 1835 the Governor General formally declared English as the medium of instruction in India. Bentinck opened a Medical College at Calcutta in 1835 A. D.

Social Reforms

Bentinck's greatest title to fame rests on the social and humanitarian reforms introduced by him. The custom of *Sati* existed in Bengal and certain other parts of the British dominion. Bentinck decided to abolish this horrible custom. Strengthened by the opinion of his officials and enlightened Indians like Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Bentinck passed on 4 December 1829 the most famous resolution by which *Sati* was declared illegal and punishable as culpable homicide. Bentinck also suppressed the *thugs*, a murderous gang of robbers. The *thugs* were found mostly in central India. Bentinck established a separate department to deal with *Thuggee* and placed Major Sleeman in charge of it. Thousands were chased from province to province, and were either imprisoned or sentenced to death. Bentinck prohibited female infanticide also.

An Estimate

Bentinck certainly occupies an important place among the Governors-General of India. He was the first Governor-General who acted on the belief that India was to be administered not for the benefit of the British people, but for the welfare of the Indians. The reforms introduced by him gave a great fillip to the process of the modernisation of India begun under the Governor-Generalship of Lord Hastings.

LORD DALHOUSIE (1848—1856 A. D.)

The Governor-Generalship of Dalhousie represented a significant land-mark in the evolution of British administration in India. The spread of British power made the need for a well-knit, centralised authority keenly felt. Dalhousie introduced a series of administrative and social reforms. On the basis of his role as a reformer, Dalhousie has been described as the "Maker of Modern India". Dalhousie continued Bentinck's work of modernising Indian administration and completed it.

Civil Administration

The Governor-General first applied himself to the task of making administration modern and efficient. He arranged the government work on a departmental basis. The system of recruiting the civil servants of the Company by means of a competitive examination was instituted. Bengal was made a separate province under a Lieutenant-Governor. The Governor-General's council was reorganized on a representative basis. The council was enlarged by the addition of one representative each from Bengal, Bombay, Madras and North-West Provinces, and two judges.

Education

Sir Charles Wood, President of the Board of Control, sent a despatch on education. According to it, universities were to be started at Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta on the model of the London University. The university was to be an examining body and not a teaching institution. Colleges were to be affiliated to the universities. Increased attention was given to education in Indian languages and separate departments of public instruction were organized in every province. The scheme also provided for a further increase in the number of government colleges and schools, the establishment of new middle schools, and the introduction of a system of grants-in-aid. Active State support was extended to the education of women. Dalhousie encouraged technological education and historical and archaeological research also.

Railways, Post and Telegraph

Dalhousie's Governor Generalship is specially remembered for the introduction of Railways and Telegraph in India. The Governor-General realised the need for railway lines in transporting raw-materials like iron and raw-cotton for exportation to Britain. British railway companies were encouraged to take up the project. They were guaranteed a minimum profit of 5 percent on their investment. In 1853 A. D. the first railway line connecting Bombay and Thana was opened. By 1856 A. D., railway lines were laid between Calcutta and Ranigunj and between Madras and Arkonam.

Dalhousie caused the introduction of electric telegraph system in India. About 4000 miles of Telegraph lines connecting Calcutta and Peshawar, Bombay and Madras were laid. Dalhousie re-organized the postal system and introduced the uniform postage of half-anna for a letter and quarter of an anna for post-card, irrespective of the distance within the country.

Public Works

Before Dalhousie became Governor-General, the Military Board was looking after the Public Works also. The Board neglected the construction of projects beneficial to the people. Hence, Dalhousie created a separate department of public works and allotted 10 percent of the total revenues for it. Special attention was given to irrigation works. In 1854 A. D. the Ganga canal was opened. A number of irrigation works were executed in South India also. River navigation was improved and steam services were opened.

Economic and Social Reforms

Dalhousie promoted agriculture, trade and industry. He introduced scientific methods of cultivation and laid out many agricultural farms. Dalhousie remodelled the harbours at Karachi.

Bombay, Calcutta and Rangoon. He encouraged iron and coal-mining also.

Dalhousie introduced reforms in the social and religious spheres also disregarding the strong conservatism of the people. He permitted widow remarriage. Hindu converts to Christianity were granted inheritance rights.

Military Reforms

Dalhousie shifted the headquarters of the Bengal artillery from Calcutta to Meerut. The army headquarters were shifted to Simla. The Gurkhas were recruited into the Indian army. He suggested to the directors of the Company to increase the strength of the British regiments in India so that any rebellion by the Indian troops might be put down.

An Estimate

It has been rightly said that as an administrator Dalhousie "has never been surpassed and seldom equalled." Every department of administration felt the touch of his reforming hands and he improved what he touched. The reforms of Dalhousie had the effect of modernising the country. However, there were grave defects in him as an administrator. He attempted to do too much without caring for the reactions of the people. Had he been less intolerant and more imaginative, he would have left behind a prosperous and contented India. But his hasty reforms plunged the country into the great catastrophe of a wide-spread revolt.

THE CHARTER ACTS

The British Parliament passed the Regulating Act in 1773 A. D. to remove the evils inherent in the constitution of the Company in England and to improve the tone of its administration in India through Parliamentary control. In 1793 A. D. the Company was given a new Charter. The Charter of the Company was renewed successively in 1813 A. D., 1833 A. D. and 1853 A. D. By these Acts, the British Parliament sought to ensure the progressive administration of the territories acquired by the Company in India.

The Charter Act of 1793

As the Company's existing Charter was expiring, a new Charter Act was passed by Parliament in 1793 A. D. The Act renewed the Charter for twenty years. The Company's trade privileges were extended for this period. A small concession of 3,000 tons of shipping was allowed to the private traders every year. But this right was never exercised. The Act laid down that the two junior members of the Board of Control need not be Privy Councillors and that the

members of the Board should be paid out of Indian revenues. The Commander-in-Chief was not to be a member of the Council of the Governor-General unless he was specially appointed to be a member by the Court of Directors. The control of the Governor-General over the Presidencies of Bombay and Madras was emphasised. It was laid down that when the Governor-General went to a Presidency he superseded the Governor. The Governor-General was empowered to appoint a Vice-President of the Executive Council from among the members of the Council. The Vice-President was to act in place of the Governor-General when the latter was absent from Bengal.

The Charter Act of 1813

The Charter Act of 1813 renewed the Charter of the East India Company for a further period of twenty years. The Company's monopoly of Indian trade except in tea was abolished, but its monopoly of China trade was continued. The opening of private trade marks the beginning of a new chapter in the economic history of India. Separate accounts were to be kept regarding commercial transactions and territorial revenues. The Act allowed the Company to continue to hold and administer its territorial acquisition "without prejudice to the undoubted sovereignty of the British Crown in and over the same." Thus the sovereignty of the Crown was declared by Parliament to cover all the possessions of the Company in India. The Company retained its patronage, but the Crown was to approve the appointments of Governor-General, Governors and Commanders-in-Chief. Christian missionaries were allowed to come freely into the country. The Anglican Church was established in the country, and there was to be a bishop of Calcutta and three archdeacons of the Church of England in India. The Act set aside a lakh of rupees each year for the revival and improvement of literature and promotion of knowledge of science among the inhabitants of British territories in India. This marked the beginning of a regular educational enterprise by the British-Indian government. Improved arrangements for the training of the civil and military servants of the Company were sanctioned.

The Charter Act of 1833

The Charter Act of 1813 had renewed the Charter of the East India Company for a period of twenty years. Hence, the question of the renewal of the Charter came up again before Parliament in 1833 A. D. Parliament appointed a Select Committee to survey the political condition of India. The Committee presented an exhaustive report. It laid down the principle that the Indian empire did not exist for the sake of Britain, but for the welfare of the Indian peoples, and it proclaimed as an indisputable principle the remarkable and noble doctrine that the interests of the native subjects are to be consulted in preference to those of Europeans; whenever the two

came in competition. Following a debate on this report, the Act of 1833 was passed.

The Act allowed the Company to retain its territorial possessions for a further term of twenty years, "but they were to be held in trust for his Majesty, his heirs and successors". At the same time the Act deprived the Company of its remaining trade privileges, viz., the monopoly of the Chinese trade. Thus the Company lost its commercial character. It disappeared as a trading body and became a political agent for the Crown.

The Act introduced important modifications in the Indian government. The Governor-General of Bengal became the Governor-General of India, and the Council at Fort William became the Council of the Governor-General of India. The superintendence, direction and control of the whole civil and military government of all the territories and revenues of India were vested in the Governor-General of India in-Council. The number of members of the Council was fixed at four, one for legislation only called the Law Member, the Commander-in-Chief of the Bengal army being an extra-ordinary member. The Governor-General-in Council with the Law-Member could legislate for all persons and all courts. Madras and Bombay were finally subordinated to the Governor-General's control and were deprived of their legislative powers. Each subordinate Presidency was to be administered by a Governor and not more than three Councillors. The North-Western Provinces were declared a fourth presidency with a Governor, but were shortly afterwards placed under a Lieutenant-Governor. The Charter Act of 1833 also laid down the most important principle that no native of India nor any natural-born subject of His Majesty should be disabled from holding any office, place or employment under the Company by reason of his birth, descent or colour. By these provisions Parliament sought to ensure the progressive administration of the territories placed under the rule of the Company.

The Charter Act of 1853

The Charter of the Company was renewed for the last time in 1853 A. D. The Company was to continue to govern India in trust for the Crown "until Parliament should otherwise direct", and not as before for a definite period. The Act reduced the number of Directors from twenty-four to eighteen of whom six were to be appointed by the Crown. The Directors were deprived of their patronage over Indian appointments; officers of the Company were henceforth to be recruited by competitive examinations. The position of the President of the Board of Control was improved; it was placed on a footing of equality with that of a Secretary of State.

The Act introduced important administrative changes. Provision was made for the appointment of a Governor or a Lieutenant-Governor for the administration of Bengal. A Lieutenant-Governor was appointed in 1854 A. D. The number of members of the Governor General's Council was raised to four. The Law Member who until now could speak and vote only when legislative business was discussed, was made an ordinary member. He was given full rank as a Councillor with power to vote on all business. The Act also enlarged the Governor-General's Council for purposes of law-making by the addition of six new members called legislative councillors. The enlarged council thus consisted of twelve members, viz., the Governor General, the Commander-in-Chief, the four ordinary members of the Governor-General's Council and the six legislative Councillors. The Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Bengal, another Supreme Court Judge and four civil servants representing Bengal, Bombay, Madras and North-Western Provinces were the legislative Councillors. The expanded Council may be called the Legislative Council, as distinguished from the smaller Council which dealt with executive business. This was the beginning of the system of law-making through a legislative body separated from the executive body.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Describe the social and administrative reforms of Lord William Bentinck. Point out their importance.
2. Critically estimate the significance of the reforms of Lord Dalhousie.
3. Discuss the claim of Lord Dalhousie to be regarded as "the maker of modern India."
4. Give the importance of the Charter Acts of 1793, 1813 and 1833.

Short-answer Type

1. Give an account of the reforms of Lord Hastings.
2. Describe the main provisions of the Charter Act of 1853 and point out their significance.

Objective Type

A. Name the following:

- (a) The Governor who introduced the *ryotwari* system in Madras.
- (b) The Governor-General who encouraged the establishment of the Hindu College at Calcutta.

- (c) The Bengali Weekly founded at Calcutta in 1818 A. D.
- (d) The Governor-General who opened a Medical College at Calcutta in 1835 A. D.
- (e) The President of the Board of Control who recommended the establishment of universities in Bombay, Madras and Calcutta.

B. Match the following:

A	B
1. Mount Stuart Elphinstone	Missionary College
2. Lord Macaulay	Railways
3. Lord William Bentinck	Abolition of <i>Sati</i>
4. Lord Dalhousie	Introduction of English education
5. Serampore	Land-revenue settlement in Bombay

CHAPTER XXIV

The Revolt of 1857

The British supremacy over India spread very rapidly in the first half of the nineteenth century A. D. The English became masters of the whole of India by 1856 A. D. The year 1857 saw a large-scale upheaval against the British power in India. British historians like Sir Alfred Lyall and Dr. Vincent Smith regarded the upheaval as a mere "Sepoy Mutiny". However, Indian scholars like V. D. Savarkar and Asoka Mehta viewed it as a War of Independence.

Causes of the Revolt

In its beginning the Revolt of 1857 was mainly a military uprising caused by the discontent in the Indian army. But this happened at a time when there was much political, social and economic discontent in India.

Political Causes

The policy of annexation pursued by Dalhousie alarmed the ruling classes in India when they found that one State after another was passing into the hands of the Company. The princes thought that the English had adopted this policy only with the purpose of bringing the whole of India under their rule. The Nawab of Oudh submitted without resistance, but there was much disaffection among the *Talukdars*, the disbanded soldiers, and the people of Oudh. The Mughal emperor Bahadur Shah II received a pension and lived in the Red Fort at Delhi. But even this titular sovereignty of the Mughal emperor was to come to an end after the death of Bahadur Shah II. The annexation of Satara, Nagpur and Jhansi deeply hurt the feelings of those who were dispossessed. The Mahrattas were also discontented. The deposed Peshwa Baji Rao II had adopted Nana Sahib as his son, but the British refused to recognize Nana Sahib as the rightful heir and withdrew the pension which was due to the successor of Baji Rao II. Consequently, Nana Sahib became the most relentless enemy of the British rule. Lakshmi Bai, the Rani of Jhansi, was equally aggrieved as she had also not been allowed to adopt a son as heir to the throne. The dispossessed rulers and their friends joined together and conspired to regain the lost possessions.

Social and Religious Causes

The changes introduced by the British in the social customs of the Hindus were also a cause of great discontent among the people of India. The prohibition of *Sati* and female infanticide, and the legalization of the remarriage of widows were looked upon by the common people of the country as measures designed to break down their social order. The railway and the telegraph were looked upon as the work of the devil intended to defile religion and caste alike. Western education was considered as a device to Christianise the population. The activities of the missionaries and the law that a convert should not be debarred from inheriting property confirmed the suspicions of Hindus and Muslims. The teaching of the Bible was made compulsory in educational institutions. A Christian missionary issued a manifesto in 1855 A. D. urging the Hindus of Bengal to embrace Christianity. It is not surprising that the people and the sepoy felt that they should fight for the preservation of their religion and culture.

Economic Causes

The East India Company was making large profits at the expense of the people of India. The officers of the Company received large salaries, and the cost of administration increased with the annexation of more and more territories. All important posts were held by the British and the educated Indians were appointed only as clerks in the service of the Company. Many people had lost their jobs when their States were annexed by the British. The army of the Nawab of Oudh was disbanded and the soldiers were thus deprived of their means of livelihood. The growing unemployment among the followers of the deposed rulers gave rise to acute economic grievances in different parts of the country. Besides, the British did hardly anything to improve the living condition of the people of India. On the contrary, they exploited the economic resources of the country for their own benefit. All the trade and commerce of the country went into their hands and Indian industries declined for lack of encouragement. With the import of manufactured goods from England, the Indian industries got a severe set-back. Most of the craftsmen were thrown out of employment. As the Company paid little attention to the economic condition of the people, there were frequent famines in the country. The people suffered much and discontent spread among them.

Military Cause

There was wide-spread discontent among the Indian soldiers of the army. The British officers did not treat the Indian soldiers under them with due consideration. The discipline in the army had become very lax. As the British empire extended, more and more Indian soldiers were required to serve farther and farther away

from their homes without any extra allowance. They were even called upon to fight in wars for the British in countries outside India. In 1856 A. D. an act known as General Service Enlistment Act was passed by which the soldiers enlisted under this Act could be sent overseas. The Brahmins considered it a danger to their caste to cross the seas. The disregard of the feelings of the Indian troops on the part of the British officers developed a feeling of resentment among them.

The immediate cause of the outbreak of the Revolt was what is known as the cartridge incident. Just at this time a new rifle called the Enfield rifle was given to the soldiers. A rumour spread that the cartridges to be used with it were to be greased with the fat of cows and pigs, objectionable to the Hindus and Muslims respectively. The army grew panic-stricken.

Course of the Revolt

On 24 April 1857 ninety soldiers of the cavalry regiment stationed at Meerut refused to use the new cartridges. On 9 May eighty-five of them were dismissed and sentenced to ten years' imprisonment. The very next day, 10 May, the Indian soldiers at Meerut mutinied. They shot dead their officers, broke open the prisons and set free their fellow soldiers. Then they marched off to Delhi. The soldiers there joined them, killed their European officers and took control of the city. The aged Bahadur Shah was proclaimed Emperor of India. Acting on their advice, Bahdur Shah wrote to all the chiefs and rulers of India, urging them to rise up in a united struggle to overthrow the British rule. With this, what had started as a mutiny of soldiers was transformed into a revolutionary struggle for independence. All the soldiers and Indian chiefs who joined the Revolt proclaimed their loyalty to the Mughal emperor. The Revolt soon spread over the whole of northern India from Delhi to Bihar including central India, but the main centres of the Revolt were Delhi, Kanpur, Lucknow, Jhansi, Bareilly and Arrah (Bihar).

At Kanpur, the Revolt was led by Nana Sahib. He expelled the English from Kanpur and proclaimed himself Peshwa, acknowledging Bahadur Shah as the Emperor of India. His commander Tantia Tope won undying fame by his patriotism, his fierce determination and his skill at guerilla warfare. At Lucknow the Revolt was led by Begam Harat Mahal of Oudh, while in Bihar the chief organizer of the Revolt was Kunwar Singh. One of the greatest leaders of the Revolt was Rani Lakshmi Bai of Jhansi. She joined the Revolt because the British had refused to recognize her right to adopt an heir to the throne of Jhansi and had annexed her State. The common soldiers showed great courage and laid down their lives in thousands. Hindus and Muslims fought side by side in close co-operation.

The Revolt was a mighty effort to overthrow the British rule, but it eventually failed. Delhi was recaptured in September 1857 by a British force led by Sir John Nicholson. Bahadur Shah was taken prisoner and his two sons were shot dead. The emperor was later tried and sailed to Rangoon where he died in 1862 A. D. The Rani of Jhansi died fighting on 17 June 1858. Nana Sahib at Kanpur and the Begum of Oudh at Lucknow also suffered utter defeat. Tantia Tope was caught and hanged, while Nana Sahib escaped to Nepal in 1859 A. D. and was not heard any more. By the beginning of 1859, the Revolt was crushed.

Causes of the Failure of the Revolt

Although the Revolt spread over a vast territory and was a popular struggle, it did not cover the whole country or all classes of people. Most of the Indian princes and Zamindars refused to join the rebels. Money-lenders and merchants were generally unfriendly to the rebels. The educated Indians, who did not like the superstitious ideas of the rebels and their opposition to progressive social measures, also did not support the Revolt. The provinces of Madras, Bombay and Bengal and the western Punjab were not affected by the Revolt.

The British secured the services of Indians themselves to put down the revolt. The Nizam of Hyderabad, the Scindia of Gwalior, the Holkar of Indore, the Nawab of Bhopal and many smaller rulers and the Rana of Nepal actively supported the British. The Sikhs also remained loyal to the British.

The rebels did not acquire large-scale popular support. They did not secure the sympathies of the peasants. They had the support of feudal lords only. The common people believed that British rule provided peace and tranquillity to the country and hence preferred it.

The rebel leaders were not well-versed in the art of warfare and diplomacy. Their military equipment was inferior to that of the British. Excepting Tantia Tope and Rani Lakshmi Bai, the leaders of the mutiny were of a low calibre. On the other hand, the British generals like Outram, Havelock, Nicholson and Hugh Rose were renowned soldiers.

The rebels themselves had no clear-sighted policy or programme. They were not properly organized and lacked discipline. Having no common, concerted plan of action, or central leadership, the revolts in different parts of the country were uncoordinated. The leaders had nothing in common except a hatred for the British. They were suspicious and jealous of one another and frequently quarrelled among themselves. As a result, the British could defeat them one by one.

Results of the Revolt

The most important result of the Revolt was that the rule of the East India Company came to an end. The British Parliament passed an Act in 1858 A. D. known as An Act for the Better Government of India by which the Government of India was transferred from the Company to the Crown. The Board of Control and the Court of Directors were abolished. A Secretary of State for India was appointed to handle Indian affairs. He was also a member of the British Cabinet. He was assisted by a body of 15 members known as the the India Council. The Governor-General was thereafter known as the Viceroy or the representative of the British sovereign in India.

The decision taken in England regarding the transfer of the government of India from the Company to the Crown was announced in India by a proclamation of Queen Victoria. The proclamation declared the principles on which the government of India was to be conducted in future. The Indian princes were assured that their States would not be annexed any more. They were permitted to enjoy the rights of adoption and succession. The people were assured of the freedom of worship. They were promised equal opportunities to hold offices in the government, irrespective of class, creed and religion. The queen promised an impartial and just government to the people.

The Indian army was thoroughly reorganized with the object of keeping it under the effective control of the British. Native army was reduced to half of its strength. British troops were stationed at all strategic points. Artillery was kept in the British custody only.

After the Revolt of 1857, the British government purposefully strengthened the forces of reaction in the country. The princes and zamindars had rendered a great service to the British during the Revolt. It became the main principle of the British policy since 1857 A. D. to preserve these elements as the most reliable friends of the British empire in India.

The Revolt widened the gulf between the British rulers and the Indian people. The bitter memories of the events of 1857 that persisted in the minds of Indians formed the basis of Indian opposition to British rule in future. The Revolt widened the gulf between the Hindus and Muslims also. The Muslims felt the grievance that the Hindus did not play their part well in the Revolt. This developed a feeling of antagonism between the two major communities of India.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Outline the causes and effects of the Revolt of 1857.
2. Review the main incidents of the Revolt of 1857.

Short-answer Type

1. Examine the responsibility of Dalhousie for the out-break of the Revolt of 1857.
2. What were the social and religious causes of the Revolt of 1857.
3. Give the reasons for the failure of the Revolt of 1857.
4. Write a short note on Queen Victoria's Proclamation of 1858.

Objective Type**A. Name the following:**

- (a) The Mughal emperor at the time of the Revolt of 1857.
- (b) The adopted son Peshwa Baji Rao II.
- (c) The leader of the Indian soldiers at Kanpur.
- (d) The leader of the Revolt of 1857 at Lucknow.
- (e) The guerilla leader of the Great Revolt.
- (f) British Commander who captured Delhi.

B. Match the following:**A**

1. The last Mughal Emperor
2. Guerilla leader of the Revolt of 1857
3. Indian soldiers
4. Greased Cartridges

B

- Objectionable to Hindus and Muslims
- Enfield rifles
- Tantia Tope
- Bahadur Shah II

CHAPTER XXV

India Under the Crown

In 1858 A. D. the government of India passed from the Company to the Crown and remained under the Crown until 1947 A. D. when the country became independent. The Crown administered India through its representative known as the Viceroy. Britain sent out to India some of her most outstanding sons as viceroys. In all, twenty viceroys governed India during this period of ninety years, from 1858 to 1947. The Viceroys from Canning to Curzon belonging to the first half of this period were all products of the age of Victorian liberalism. On the whole, their governments were characterised by a sense of paternalism and they were influenced by the best traditions of British liberalism in governing India. During the second half of this period, from Minto to Mountbatten, the Viceroys were more concerned about meeting the challenges posed by the nation's struggle for independence than ensuring good government to the people of India.

FROM CANNING TO CURZON

Lord Canning (1858—1862 A. D.)

Lord Canning who was Governor-General from 1856 to 1858 A. D. became the first viceroy of India in November 1858 under the Queen's Proclamation and functioned henceforth under the Government of India Act of 1858.

After the suppression of the Revolt the first task of the government was the restoration of order and peace. In 1857—58 A. D. both the Indian soldiers and the British had been guilty of atrocities. Lord Canning adopted an attitude of leniency with a view to healing the wounds. But his work was obstructed by the bitter criticism of non-official Europeans who called him "Clemency Canning". He offered a free pardon to all who accepted British rule. The ring leaders of the rebellion were punished while those who helped the British were rewarded with titles, gifts and pensions. The Viceroy toured all over northern India, published the Queen's Proclamation, and so won the hearts of the people.

Canning also found time to carry out some useful reforms. The most pressing problem with which Canning had to deal was finance. The finances of the government were very low, as the suppression of

the Revolt had cost them forty million sterling; and they had to spend ten million more per year to prevent the recurrence of such a rebellion. Financial experts like James Wilson and Samuel Laing were brought from England to help the government. By their advice, the military expenditure was greatly reduced while in other departments economy was enforced. The customs duties were revised. Export duties were abolished while duties on imports were reduced. A paper currency was introduced. A license duty and an income-tax were also imposed. These fresh taxes and economy measures soon set right the finances of the government. The Indian army was completely reorganized. The British element in the army was strengthened. The Indian Penal Code originally framed by Lord Macaulay was adopted in 1860 A. D. In 1861 A. D., the Civil and Criminal Procedure Codes were also brought into operation. The Supreme Court and the *Sadr Adalat* were abolished, and High Courts were set up in Calcutta, Madras and Bombay. In 1859 A. D. a Rent Act was passed to protect the cultivators of Bengal from the oppression of the land-lords. The tenants who held the same land for twelve years were made owners of the same. An Act of 1861 re-organized the police establishment. In 1859 A. D. a Finance Member was added to the Viceroy's Council. In 1861 A. D. the portfolio system was introduced as a result of which each member was entrusted with a separate department of administration. Provincial legislatures were set up to which Indians were admitted. Lord Canning retired in 1862 A. D.

Lord Elgin (1862—1863 A. D.) and Lord Lawrence (1864—1869 A. D.)

Lord Elgin succeeded Canning as Viceroy in 1862 A. D. He died of heart disease in 1863 A. D. Sir John Lawrence, who had been the Commissioner of the Punjab and who did good service to put down the Revolt of 1857, was chosen to succeed Lord Elgin. The Viceroy continued the work of pacification begun by Canning. Railways, telegraphs and irrigation works were greatly extended. Postal rates were lowered, and the pay of government officers raised. Lawrence was very sympathetic towards the Indians, and when the government faced a financial crisis, he imposed income-tax on Indians as well as Europeans and thus showed his impartiality. The Punjab and Oudh Tenancy Acts of 1868 passed by him conferred on the ryots of these provinces the benefits enjoyed by the Bengal peasants under the Act of 1859. A separate Forest Department was created to look after the forest wealth of the country. In foreign affairs, Lawrence followed a policy of "Masterly inactivity" towards Afghanistan, and recognized any one who was on the throne of Kabul without interfering in her internal affairs. He waged a war against Bhutan and occupied a portion of it.

Lord Mayo (1869—1872 A. D.)

Lord Mayo introduced some important reforms in the administration of India. He was compelled to start his career as the Viceroy of India as a financial reformer since his predecessor had left a large deficit. He increased the income-tax as well as the salt-duties. Economy in expenditure was effected on a large scale. In 1870 A. D. Mayo introduced a new distribution of income between the central and provincial governments. According to the new system, certain items of revenue and expenditure were transferred to provincial control. The central government gave a fixed annual grant to provincial governments with full freedom in regard to expenditure. So long, all grants by the central government to the provincial governments were definitely earmarked for special purposes, so that any amount saved by the latter had to be returned to the former.

Lord Mayo organized the first general census of India in 1871 A. D. and created a department of agriculture and commerce.

Lord Northbrook (1872—1876 A. D.)

Lord Northbrook who succeeded Lord Mayo as Viceroy was a believer in free trade. He lowered the import duty from $7\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 percent. He abolished export duties on many commodities. The Home Government wanted even the 5% import duty on Manchester cotton goods to be abolished. But he did not comply with that request. He abolished income-tax.

Lord Lytton (1876—1880 A. D.)

The viceroyalty of Lord Lytton who succeeded Lord Northbrook was a period of vigorous administrative activity. The British Parliament having passed the Royal Titles Act conferring upon the sovereign of England the title of Kaiser-i-Hind, Lord Lytton in 1877 A. D. held a Durbar at Delhi in which Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India. During 1876—1878 A. D. many parts of the Deccan and Central India were affected by a severe famine. Lytton appointed a Famine Commission headed by Sir Richard Strachey. Its recommendation formed the basis for the famine relief measures taken by the Indian government thereafter. The financial reforms of Lord Lytton were important steps towards the introduction of Free Trade in India. The salt-tax was, in a large measure, equalised. The system of financial decentralization begun by Lord Mayo was extended and developed. Henceforth, provincial governments were given a share in the revenues instead of a fixed grant from the imperial treasury. In 1878 A. D. Lord Lytton passed the Vernacular Press Act by which censorship was imposed on the vernacular newspapers in the country. In 1879 A. D. the Statutory Civil Service was established with a view to giving Indians a chance to occupy important posts in the higher administrative service. But the measure proved failure.

Lord Ripon (1880—1884 A. D.)

Lord Ripon who succeeded Lord Lytton was one of the most popular viceroys of India who worked for the good of the people. He was a true liberal of the Gladstonian era with a strong belief in the virtues of peace, laissez faire, and self-government. His political outlook was a striking contrast to that of his imperialistic predecessors. He had real sympathy for the political aspirations of the educated Indians and made an honest attempt to satisfy them by liberalising Indian administration.

One of the earliest measures of Lord Ripon was the restoration of the freedom of the press. He repealed the Vernacular Press Act passed by Lord Lytton. Thus, vernacular newspapers were placed on a level of equality with those published in English. Lord Ripon extended the free-trade policy inaugurated by Lord Northbrooke and developed by Lord Lytton. Many of the import duties were abolished and the salt-tax was lowered throughout India.

Lord Ripon took great interest in the welfare of the peasants and workers. He planned a Tenancy Act to improve the condition of the ryots of Bengal and Oudh, and these were passed subsequently in the time of his successor. The honour of passing the first Factory Act in India belongs to Lord Ripon. According to the Factory Act of 1881, children under seven years of age should not be employed in factories. Children between 7 and 12 should not be given more than six hours of work per day. Dangerous machinery should be properly fenced. Government was to appoint factory inspectors to inspect the factories.

Lord Ripon appointed a Commission on education under the chairmanship of Sir William Hunter. The Commission made recommendations for the spread of elementary education. It emphasised the need for encouraging private individuals to start educational institutions with State aid. Educational inspectors were to be appointed to supervise the working of schools and colleges. Ripon accepted and implemented the recommendations of the Commission. For the benefit of Indians, Ripon got the age limit for the Indian Civil Service examinations raised from 18 to 21.

Ripon paid adequate attention to the irrigation projects in the country. About 1000 miles of canals and 1200 miles of distributory canals were dug. A million more acres were brought under cultivation. New railroads were laid in many parts of the country.

Ripon's chief claim to fame rests on his Local Self-Government Act. Municipalities had already been established in big towns but the municipal commissioners were nominated by the government. In rural areas there were committees which managed local affairs such as sanitation, the repair and construction of roads, maintenance of ferries, education, etc. Regulations had been passed, authorising the

government to defray the expenses of these local works. But the local committees were all under official control. Their members were nominated by the government and they had an official chairman. Besides, the areas served by these committees were too large. The result was that their members were insufficiently acquainted with the needs of different localities spread over such a wide area. Lord Ripon earnestly sought to remove these drawbacks which hindered real self-government in the local bodies. Ripon's plan as embodied in a Government Resolution of 1882 envisaged local boards with smaller areas and laid emphasis on the elective principle. In towns the powers and responsibilities of the Municipalities were extended, their members were to be partly elected and partly nominated and it was provided that their Chairman should be a non-official whenever possible. In the rural areas he set up a system of District Boards and Local Boards known as *tahsil* or *taluk* boards. Wherever possible the representatives were to be elected by rate payers rather than nominated by the government. Local boards were placed under district boards. All these local bodies were given certain financial powers. By the end of 1884 A. D. local self-governing institutions were spread over the whole of British India. In extending local self-government, Lord Ripon stressed its educative value. The experiment was, however, very much limited in operation. It did not provide much political education and did not contribute to any political progress.

Lord Ripon sought to abolish "Judicial disqualification based on race distinction." Till now a European British subject could be tried only by a magistrate or sessions judge of European birth, though in the Presidency towns this rule did not apply. By this time some Indian members of the Indian civil service had risen to the position of magistrates and sessions judges. Ripon felt that it was unfair that they had no jurisdiction over Europeans. So in 1883 A. D., C. P. Ilbert, Law Member of the Viceroy's Council, prepared a Bill empowering the Indian magistrates to try the European British subjects. Europeans and Anglo-Indians agitated against the Bill and held violent demonstrations in Calcutta to protest against the Bill. Ripon was forced to accept a compromise formula by which the Europeans who were under trial before any judge could claim to be tried by a jury, half of whom were to be Europeans. From the Ilbert Bill controversy educated Indians learnt the lesson that the powerful British government could be deflected from its purpose by organized agitation.

In foreign affairs, Ripon successfully concluded the second Anglo-Afghan War and effected the 'rendition' of Mysore by which in 1881 A. D. Mysore was restored to the adopted son of the Maharajah whom Lord Bentinck had deposed in 1831 A. D. for misgovernment.

Ripon resigned in 1884 A. D. and left India. He was certainly one of the most popular viceroys and a true friend of India.

Lord Dufferin (1884—1888 A. D.)

Lord Dufferin who succeeded Lord Ripon as the viceroy of India was well fitted to allay the storm of bitter feeling created by the controversy over the Ilbert Bill. A very important event during Dufferin's administration was the meeting of the first session of the Indian National Congress at Bombay in 1885 A. D. Dufferin favoured the establishment of the Congress.

Lord Lansdowne (1888—1894 A. D.)

Lord Lansdowne who succeeded Lord Dufferin devoted a good deal of attention to the question of frontier defence. The appointment of a Boundary Commission under Sir Mortimer Durand restored good relations with Afghanistan. Lansdowne had to deal with some of the Indian States drastically. In Manipur a disputed succession gave rise to troubles. Although there was great provocation, no annexation followed. Lansdowne passed the Factory Act of 1891 which provided protection to workers. The hours of employment for women were limited to eleven hours a day. The minimum age for children was raised from seven to nine and their hours of work restricted to seven per day. Night work was forbidden to children. All workers were to be entitled to a weekly holiday. The Age of Consent Act raised the limit within which protection was given to young girls from ten to twelve years. The Statutory Civil Service established by Lord Lytton was abolished. Indians who chose to go to London were permitted to participate in the competitive examination held there to recruit officers to the Indian Civil Service.

Lord Elgin (1894—1899 A. D.)

The viceroyalty of Lord Elgin who succeeded Lord Lansdowne was one of great difficulty. Financial stringency compelled the Viceroy to revise the free trade policy of the government and to impose a duty of three and a half per cent on all imports. In 1896 A. D. the country was visited by famine and plague. These took a heavy toll of lives. Effective measures were adopted to meet the problems created by the famine and plague. The military administration was reformed and the Indian Army was brought under a single Commander-in-Chief.

Lord Curzon (1899—1905 A. D.)

Lord Curzon occupies a unique place among the Viceroys of India. He possessed intimate knowledge of Indian and Asiatic affairs. He served as Under-Secretary of State before becoming the Viceroy. He came to India with views of racial and individual superiority and had a contempt for the Indian people. He neither appreciated self-government nor believed in popular co-operation. His ideal of statecraft was efficiency in administration, and with

a view to achieving this ideal, he overhauled the entire administration making his mark on every department of administration.

Lord Curzon's foreign policy was mainly concerned with Afghanistan, Persia and Tibet. In Afghanistan, he gave up the forward policy and followed what may be called the "close border system." The British troops were gradually withdrawn from the Khyber Pass and the tribal country. The British troops were replaced by tribal levies trained and commanded by British officers. Railways connecting strategic places were constructed and importation of arms and ammunitions was regulated. The tribesmen were made to realize that they would be left undisturbed in full enjoyment of their freedom so long as they did not create trouble on the frontier regions. This policy lasted till 1919 A. D. Lord Curzon tried to increase and extend British influence in the regions of the Persian Gulf in the face of strong opposition from France, Russia, Germany and Turkey. He established British Consulates at various centres and extended British hold on the countries bordering the Persian Gulf. He sent a military mission to Tibet in 1904 A. D. under the leadership of Younghusband and forced the Dalai Lama to sign the Treaty of Lhasa and thereby foiled Russian designs on Tibet.

In internal administration Lord Curzon had notable achievements to his credit. He organized famine relief on very efficient lines. A Famine Commission was appointed under the chairmanship of Sir Antony Macdonnell and his report published in 1901 A. D. contained several recommendations concerning famine relief. Acting on the recommendations of the Commission, Curzon introduced several measures to improve the condition of the peasants. The Punjab Land Alienation Act of 1900 provided against eviction of cultivators by money-lenders. The Land Revenue Regulation of 1902 made assessment and classification of revenue more liberal. Land Tax could be paid in a larger number of instalments spread over a longer period. Co-operative Credit Societies were set up all over the country to encourage self-help among the peasants as also to enable them to get loans for purposes of cultivation at very low rates of interest. In 1901 A. D. an Inspector General of Agriculture was appointed and an Agricultural Research Institute was set up at Pusa.

Curzon re-organized the administration of the Army and Police departments. The Imperial Cadet Corps was established in 1901 A. D. to attract young men of noble birth into the army service. The Viceroy drew a master plan for future irrigation works. He authorised increased outlay on railways which made possible the construction of 6900 miles of new lines.

In 1902 A. D. the Universities Commission under the presidency of Sir Thomas Raleigh was appointed. On the basis of its recommendations, the Indian Universities Act of 1904 was passed. The

Act strengthened the control of the government over the universities. The Ancient Monuments Preservation Act of 1904 provided for the restoration and preservation of India's ancient monuments and works of art. The Viceroy established a department of Archaeology and Epigraphy and Sir John Marshall was appointed as its Director. In 1904 A. D., the Commerce and Industry Department of the Government of India was created and a new Member was added to the Viceroy's Council to be in charge of that Department.

Lord Curzon had no faith in the ability of Indians to run the local bodies successfully. He wanted to curtail the powers of the local self-government institutions. In 1900 A. D. he passed a Bill which reduced the strength of the Calcutta Corporation from 75 to 50, the number of elected members being made equal to that of the nominated members. The chairman also was to be an official. In 1905 A. D. Curzon effected the partition of Bengal. The old province was too unwieldy and the eastern part of it suffered some neglect. Hence, eastern Bengal and Assam were united together into a separate province and placed under a Lieutenant Governor. East Bengal was predominantly a Muslim area. The Congress leaders alleged that the partition of Bengal was made to separate the Hindus and Muslims on a political basis. The partition of Bengal was opposed by the people of Bengal who considered it as a challenge to their national spirit.

In 1905 A. D. Lord Curzon resigned when dispute arose between the British cabinet and the viceroy over the selection of the Military Supply Member of the Viceroy's Council.

FROM MINTO TO MOUNTBATTEN

Lord Minto (1905—1910 A. D.), Lord Hardinge (1910—1916 A. D.), Lord Chelmsford (1916—1921 A. D.), Lord Reading (1921—1926 A. D.), Lord Irwin (1926—1931 A. D.), Lord Willington (1931—1936 A. D.), Lord Linlithgo (1936—1943 A. D.), Lord Wavell (1944—1947 A. D.) and Lord Mountbatten (1947 A. D.) were the Viceroys during the second half of the period when the government of India was under the Crown. The period saw the intensification of the agitation for national independence and self-government by Indians. The government resorted to repressive measures as well as measures intended to pacify the Indians. The British Parliament passed a series of constitutional reform measures culminating in the grant of independence to India by the Indian Independence Act of 1947.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Briefly summarise the reforms of Lord Ripon.
2. Give an account of the reforms of Lord Curzon.

Short-answer Type

1. Point out the reforms introduced by Lord Canning as viceroy.
2. Give an account of the administrative measures of Lord Lytton.
3. Give a brief account of the internal administration of Lord Curzon.

Objective Type**A. Name the following:**

- (a) The first Viceroy of India.
- (b) The Viceroy who organized the first general census of India.
- (c) Law Member of Ripon's Council.
- (d) The Viceroy who established the Statutory Civil Service.
- (e) The Viceroy who permitted Indians to appear for the Indian Civil Service Examination held in London.
- (f) Chairman of the Famine Commission appointed by Lord Curzon.
- (g) The Viceroy who passed the Ancient Monuments Preservation Act of 1904.

B. Match the following:

A	B
1. Lord Lawrence	Education Commission
2. Lord Mayo	Famine Commission
3. Lord Lytton	Indian Universities Commission, 1902
4. Lord Ripon	Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa
5. Lord Dufferin	Abolition of the Statutory Civil Service
6. Lord Lansdowne	The first session of the Indian National Congress
7. Lord Curzon	The First Factory Act of India
8. Sir Thomas Ralieggh	The Vernacular Press Act
9. Sir Richard Strachey	The First General Census of India, 1871
10. Sir William Hunter	The Punjab and Oudh Tenancy Acts, 1868

CHAPTER XXVI

British Conquest of Burma and the Afghan Wars

BRITISH CONQUEST OF BURMA

About the year 1760 when the English were busy in establishing their power in Bengal, a Burmese Chief Alompra, established his rule in Burma with Ava as capital. His successors went on extending the frontiers of their kingdom. In 1784 A. D. the Burmese conquered the independent kingdom of Arakan and thus came very near Chittagong. The expansion of British power in the north-east led to border clashes between the British and Burmese troops. In 1813 A. D. the king of Burma occupied Manipur. In 1817—1818 A. D. he sent a letter to the British government in which he claimed Chittagong, Dacca, Murshidabad and Kazimbazar. The Burmese continued their aggressions and in 1822 A. D. they conquered Assam. The greed for territory and markets also made the British conquer Burma. The rich forest resources of Burma attracted the British merchants. The suspicion of the British that France which had firmly established herself in Indo-China would stretch her arms on Burma in course of time prompted the British to undertake the conquest of Burma.

The First Burmese War (1824—1826 A. D.)

The troubles in the Chittagong-Arakan frontier reached their climax in 1823 A. D. when they attacked Shahpuri, a small island near Chittagong which belonged to the Company. In 1824 A. D. the Burmese forces under their great leader General Maha Bandula clashed with the English army in Cachar which had come under the Company's influence. Then they moved into the Arakan with the object of driving the English out of Bengal. Lord Amherst, the Governor-General, took up the challenge and declared war on Burma in March 1824.

The British plan of campaign was to capture Rangoon and then march up the Irrawady to the Burmese capital Ava. The British captured Rangoon but could not proceed on account of heavy rains and want of supplies. Attempts to enter Burma overland failed and Maha Bandula defeated a British detachment at Ramu on the

Chittagong frontier. However, the British occupied Tenasserim and Pegu. An attempt made by Maha Bandula to recapture Rangoon failed and he was forced to withdraw. The Burmese were expelled from Assam in 1825 A. D. In the same year they withdrew from Cachar and Manipur, and Maha Bandula was himself defeated and killed by the English at Donabew. Prome, the capital of Lower Burma, was occupied and the British forces advanced on Yandaboo. The Burmese now sued for peace in February 1826.

By the Treaty of Yandaboo, the Burmese surrendered to the Arakan and Tenasserim, renounced all rights of interference in Assam, Cachar and Jaintia, and recognized the independence of Manipur. They agreed to pay a war indemnity of one crore of rupees, and to receive a British Resident at Ava.

The Second Burmese War (1852 A. D.)

Although the king of Burma had agreed to receive a British Resident at Ava, successive Residents were treated with indignity, by the king of Burma. British Residency in Burma was finally withdrawn in 1840 A. D. British merchants wanted to establish commercial relations with the entire country in order to exploit the timber resources and sell their manufactured goods. But the British merchants at Rangoon were oppressed and the British flag insulted.

Lord Dalhousie who became Governor-General of India, as an annexationist, was determined to push the British frontiers to the maximum extent possible. He was anxious to prevent the spread of French influence in the court of Ava. He found an excuse for a war with the king of Burma in the appeals made to him by the British merchants at Rangoon. Dalhousie demanded 10 lakhs of rupees as compensation from the king of Burma. Simultaneously, he despatched troops to conquer Lower Burma. The Governor-General himself went to Rangoon. The British army captured important towns like Rangoon, Bassein, Prome, Pegu and Moulmein. In 1852 A. D. without any treaty, Pegu was annexed to the British dominion by a proclamation. The Burmese king did not recognize the act of annexation, but he did not continue the fight. Two-thirds of Burma now came under British control.

The Third Burmese War. (1885—1886 A. D.)

The Burmese rulers continued to be hostile to the English. King Mindon (1853—1872) was anxious to recover the lost territories and sent envoys to France to secure her help in the matter. The next Burmese ruler king Thibaw (1878—1885) came closer to the French. He began negotiations for the signing of a commercial treaty with the French. A Burmese mission visited Paris in 1883. In 1885 king Thibaw signed a commercial treaty with France. At the same time he rejected proposals for commercial treaties with the British

The British merchants were afraid that the French would capture the rich Burmese markets. Under their pressure the British government decided to conquer upper Burma. The imposition of a heavy fine on a British trading company by the Burmese government provided an opportunity for the British to bring matters to a crisis. Lord Dufferin, the Viceroy, sent an ultimatum to the Burmese king. He demanded that the British should be allowed to trade with China through Burma, that a British envoy should be received at Mandalay and no action was to be taken against the British trading company until the arrival of the British envoy, and that he should subject his foreign policy to British control. The king refused to comply with the demands and war was declared by Lord Dufferin.

The British troops invaded upper Burma in November 1885. The Burmese made hardly any resistance. The king surrendered unconditionally when the army approached his capital. In January 1, 1886 Upper Burma was formally annexed to the British Indian empire by a proclamation.

THE AFGHAN WARS

Afghanistan is a wild, mountainous territory in the north-west of India, beyond the land of the Punjab. It consisted of three different provinces, Herat, Kabul and Kandahar. After the death of Nadir Shah in 1747 A. D., his commander, Ahmed Shah Abdali (Durrani) united the whole country under his rule. After his death there were many claimants to the Afghan throne, and the country was torn asunder by civil wars among the Durrani. After a prolonged period of anarchy and uncertainty Shah Shuja, a grandson of Ahmed Shah Abdali, ascended the throne. In 1809 A. D. he was dethroned and driven out of the State. He came to Ludhiana and stayed there under British protection. In 1826 A. D. one Dost Muhammad usurped the throne of Kabul and assumed the title of Amir.

Afghanistan, because of its situation, its natural strength and strategic value, was of great importance to the British. Since the days of Sir John Shore, the British entertained the fear of a French conquest of Hindustan through Persia and Afghanistan. This fear had led Lord Minto to send embassies to the courts of Teheran, Kabul and Ranjit Singh. Later, British relations with Afghanistan were influenced by the Anglo-Russian rivalry over the trade with Central Asia. When Shah Shuja had been the Amir, Elphinstone met him at Peshawar. Lord Auckland feared that the Russians might invade India through Persia and Afghanistan. The British, therefore, desired to control and dominate Afghanistan from where they could penetrate Central Asia. In 1837 A. D. a Persian army trained by the Russians besieged Herat. Lord Auckland took alarm at this and sent Captain Burns to Kabul, nominally on a commercial mission, but really to counteract Russian schemes in Afghanistan.

Dost Muhammad, the ruler of Kabul, agreed to do all that the English demanded on condition that the latter would exert pressure on Ranjit Singh to restore Peshawar to him. Lord Auckland was not prepared to incur the enmity of Ranjit Singh and did not agree to the condition suggested by Dost Muhammad. So Dost Muhammad turned to Russia and received a Russian envoy. Auckland was not prepared to tolerate the overtures of Dost Muhammad to the Russians and decided to overthrow him and restore Shah Shuja. In 1838 A. D. a tripartite treaty was concluded among the Company, Ranjit Singh and Shah Shuja by which the first two promised to help Shah Shuja to recapture the Afghan throne in return for his promise not enter into relations with any foreign power without their consent.

The First Afghan War (1839—1842 A. D.)

Meanwhile, the Russian agent had been withdrawn from Kabul and the Persians had raised the siege of Herat. However, Auckland, having determined on war, pursued his policy regardless of the fact that the alleged necessity for it had disappeared. Ranjit Singh, although a signatory of the tripartite agreement, refused to permit the British troops to march through his territory. British troops were sent through both Bolan and Khyber Passes. Kandahar was occupied and Ghazni was stormed in 1839 A. D. Dost Muhammed fled and Shah Shuja was made ruler. Then Dost Muhammed surrendered and was sent away to Calcutta as a State prisoner.

But this was an empty triumph. There was no popular support for Shah Shuja. Shah Shuja was kept in power only by the military strength of the British stationed at Kabul, Jalalabad, Ghazni and Kandahar. The misconduct of the British officials still infuriated the people. In November 1841, the people of Kabul rose under the leadership of Akbar Khan, son of Dost Muhammad, and attacked the British troops. Alexander Burns, the envoy-designate was murdered. Sir William Macnaghten, the British Resident at Kabul was forced to conclude a humiliating treaty by which the British agreed to leave Afghanistan and restore Dost Muhammad. Macnaghten was suspected of bad faith and the Afghans assassinated him. As the British forces left Afghanistan, they were attacked by the Afghans who were waiting all along the way. Out of 16,000 men only one, Dr. Brydon, reached Jalalabad to tell the sorry tale. Lord Auckland laid down the reins of office before the war came to a close.

Lord Ellenborough, the successor of Lord Auckland, immediately on his arrival took steps to retrieve the British prestige. He re-established British prestige by recapturing Ghazni, Kandahar and Kabul. The gates of Somnath, said to have been taken away by Mahmud of Ghazni, were brought back. English prisoners were released. Now that Shah Shuja had been murdered by his own

followers, Dost Muhammad was released and allowed to resume his throne.

The Period of "Masterly Inactivity"

From the bitter and costly experience in the First Afghan War the British government learnt the lesson that the Afghans were too nationalistic to tolerate any sort of outside interference in their internal affairs. Lord Dalhousie maintained cordial relations with Afghanistan. In 1855 A. D. Lord Dalhousie negotiated a treaty of friendship with Dost Muhammad. His object was to ensure the safety of the newly acquired province of the Punjab. The treaty was renewed and strengthened in 1857 A. D. in recognition of the services rendered by the British in compelling the Persians to evacuate Herat which they had wrested from the Afghans the year before. As a result, Dost Muhammad remained a faithful ally of the British. The death of Dost Muhammad in 1863 A. D. was followed by a war of succession among his sixteen sons. Sir John Lawrence, the Viceroy, refused to interfere, but openly declared that he would support that prince who succeeded in getting the throne. In short, he followed the policy of "non-interference" or "masterly inactivity". Finally, when Sher Ali became successful in the struggle and became Amir, the Viceroy recognized him. This policy of avoiding active interference in the affairs of Afghanistan was continued by Lord Mayo and Lord Northbrook. However, Mayo removed the coldness with Afghanistan created under Sir John Lawrence. The Russians had been extending their influence on the Indian frontier and it was feared that they might attack India through Afghanistan. Hence, the friendship of the Amir was very necessary to prevent this danger. Sher Ali was also aware of the danger to his own independence from Russia and was prepared to co-operate with the British in a military alliance. He met Mayo at Ambala in 1869 A. D. and asked for a definite treaty alliance with the Indian government. He wanted a promise from the British that they would come to his aid in the event of a Russian aggression. He also asked the British to recognize his younger son Abdulla Jan as his heir, instead of his elder son, Yakub Khan. Lord Mayo did not comply with his request because he was unwilling to interfere with the succession to the Afghan throne. Sher Ali became a friend though no formal treaty was signed. Mayo promised "moral support to be followed by gift of money, arms and ammunition whenever the British Government deemed it desirable". At the same time, the Viceroy sent embassies to Russia, and as a result of the negotiations, the Oxus was recognized as the frontier of Afghanistan. Thus Mayo secured the integrity of Afghanistan and freed India from the Russian scare. During the viceroyalty of Lord Northbrook the Russians made a steady advance towards the northern frontier of Afghanistan. In 1873 A. D. Russians occupied Khiva and advanced towards the northern borders of Afghanistan. Sher Ali was very much alarmed. He sent his agent to meet Lord Northbrook for a definite alliance.

Northbrook sympathized with Sher Ali. But he could not make a change in Lawrence's policy on account of the unhelpful attitude of the Home Government. Sher Ali now inclined towards the Russians. In March 1874 Disraeli became Prime Minister in England. The new government wanted Northbrook to negotiate with Sher Ali for the establishment of a British Residency in Kabul. Northbrook disapproved of the forward policy of the home authorities and resigned.

Forward Policy of Lord Lytton

Disraeli was an imperialist. He was worried about the growing Russian influence at Kabul. Lord Lytton was sent to India as Viceroy in the place of Lord Northbrook to carry out a policy which the latter had not agreed to carry out. Lord Lytton came to India with instructions to conclude "a more definite equilateral and practical alliance with Sher Ali". However, the Viceroy was given a free hand in shaping his Afghan policies. Lytton informed Sher Ali that all the terms which he wanted from Lord Northbrook in 1873 A. D. might be granted if he consented to receive a British Agent at Kabul. Sher Ali rejected this condition. In 1876 A. D. Lytton occupied Quetta and appointed a British Agent there. The Amir probably looked upon the British occupation of Quetta as a preliminary step to an advance upon Kandahar. Meanwhile, war broke out between Russia and Turkey. England sympathised with Turkey and was making preparations to join the war. Foiled by England in Europe, Russia decided to seek for compensations in Asia. Russia moved her troops to the Afghan frontier across Central Asia, and forced Sher Ali to enter into an alliance with her. With the approval of the British cabinet Lord Lytton now asked the Amir to receive a British envoy and sent Sir Neville Chamberlain on a mission to Kabul. The Afghans did not allow the envoy to enter the Khyber Pass. This infuriated Lord Lytton and he declared war against Afghanistan in November 1878.

Second Anglo-Afghan War (1878—1880 A. D.)

Immediately after the declaration of the war, three British armies advanced into Afghanistan through different routes. Sher Ali was now deserted by the Russians and he was forced to flee to Turkestan where he died in February 1878. His son Yakub Khan concluded the treaty of Gandamak in May 1879 by which he agreed to have a permanent British Resident at Kabul, cede the districts of Kurram, Pishin and Sibi to the British and to conduct the foreign policy according to British advice. In return for this, he was to receive an annual subsidy of six lakhs of rupees and military assistance against foreign aggression. Sir Louis Cavagnari became the Resident. Russian influence was thus destroyed and British influence established in Afghanistan.

But this success was short-lived. Yakub Khan soon became unpopular with the freedom-loving Afghans. The British Resident in his court was murdered and the Residency was burnt to ashes. The British army once again marched into Afghanistan and defeated the rebels. Yakub Khan abdicated. He was deported to India where he lived till 1923 A. D. Kandahar and Kabul were reoccupied by the British troops. Lord Lytton thought of separating Kabul from Kandahar. At this stage Abdur Rahman Khan, a nephew of Sher Ali, proclaimed his claim to the throne of Kabul. Lord Lytton decided to recognize him as Amir, but before he could take that step the change of ministry in England led to his resignation. The Liberals who came back to power with Gladstone as Prime Minister sent Lord Ripon to inaugurate a new policy in India. Lord Ripon brought the negotiations with Abdur Rahman to a satisfactory conclusion and recognized him as Amir on three conditions: the Amir would have no political relations with any foreign power except the British; the districts of Pishin and Sibi were to remain under British control; and the Amir would receive an annual subsidy. The British gave up the demand for maintaining a British Resident at Kabul. However, new complications were created by Ayub Khan, a son of Sher Ali, who held Herat. Ayub Khan defeated a British force at Maiwand. However, Ayub Khan was finally vanquished by Abdur Rahman. The whole country passed under Abdur Rahman's rule and all British troops were withdrawn.

The Durand Line

The question of defining the frontier between Afghanistan and British India engaged the attention of Lord Ripon and Lord Dufferin. A settlement, however, was reached only during the viceroyalty of Lord Lansdowne. At first Lord Lansdowne estranged Abdur Rahman by the dictatorial tone of his letters advising him upon his internal administration. This estrangement was further aggravated by the 'forward' policy which the viceroy adopted towards the frontier tribes. The Amir resented over the British attempts to subdue the tribes. The British activity in Gilgit and Chitral brought Afghanistan and the British to the verge of war. However, the appointment of a Boundary Commission under Sir Mortimer Durand restored good relations on both sides. The Durand Mission demarcated the Indo-Afghan frontier and this demarcation line came to be known as the 'Durand line.' This restored cordial relations between the two countries.

Lord Curzon and the North-West Frontier

Lord Curzon who became Viceroy in 1899 A. D. gave up the forward policy with regard to the North-West Frontier. The British troops were gradually withdrawn from the Khyber Pass and the tribal country. The British troops were replaced by tribal levies trained and commanded by British officers. Railways connecting strategic

places were constructed and importation of arms and ammunitic^{us} was regulated. The tribesmen were made to realize that they would be left undisturbed in full enjoyment of their freedom so long as they did not create trouble on the frontier regions. This policy lasted until 1919 A. D.

In Afghanistan Lord Curzon had some trouble with Habibulla who became Amir on the death of his father Abdur Rahman in 1901 A. D. Lord Curzon held that the treaty with Abdur Rahman was a personal one, and so it lapsed with his death and had to be renewed. Habibulla maintained that the agreement was between the two countries and as such no renewal was necessary. This led, for a time, to the cessation of all intercourse between the two countries and Habibulla refused to draw his subsidy. In 1904 A. D. Lord Ampthill, the acting Viceroy during Lord Curzon's absence, established better relations with the Amir by sending a mission to Kabul. In 1905 A. D. a treaty was concluded by which the previous treaty with Abdur Rahman was renewed and the title of "His Majesty" claimed by Habibulla conceded. He consented to draw the arrears of subsidy and maintained cordial relations with the British.

The Third Afghan War (1919 A. D.)

In 1919 A. D. Amir Habibulla was assassinated. In the struggle of succession that ensued, Amanullah, one of his younger sons, came out victorious. In order to divert the attention of the people from internal affairs the new Amir embarked on a war with India. Thus began the Third Afghan War in May 1919. The war was a very brief one. The British forces moved up to the Khyber Pass and repulsed the invasion within a month. Amanullah sued for peace and a treaty was concluded in August 1919. Under the terms of this treaty arrears of the late Amir's subsidy were confiscated, no new grant was to be made to Amanullah and the Afghans were prohibited from importing arms and munitions through India. The British government gave the Amir a free hand to regulate his foreign relations. The final settlement with Afghanistan was made only in 1921 A. D. By a treaty made in that year the British recognized the complete independence of Afghanistan. Although the Afghan problem was thus settled, the tribes in the North-West Frontier continued to harass the British.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Outline the course of the British conquest of Burma.
2. Briefly describe the Anglo-Afghan Relations upto 1905 A. D.
3. Describe Auckland's Afghan policy and its results.
4. Discuss the Afghan policy of Auckland and Lytton.

Short-answer Type

1. Describe the policy of "Masterly Inactivity" as pursued by John Lawrence and its consequences.

CHAPTER XXVII

Birth of Nationalism and the Struggle for Freedom

The period following the suppression of the Revolt of 1857 saw the birth of nationalism in India. The immediate result of the defeat of the Revolt was a sense of helplessness that engulfed the Indian mind. Indians were now convinced of the uselessness of an ill-equipped people rising in revolt against a ruthless armed power. The protest against foreign rule had now to find out new means and new forms of expression. Indian nationalism arose to answer this need for new means and forms to express revulsion to foreign rule.

REVIVALIST MOVEMENTS

The ground for the growth of Indian nationalism was prepared by the socio-religious revivalist movements of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Among these the Brahma Samaj, the Arya Samaj, the Ramakrishna Mission and the Theosophical Society deserve special mention.

Raja Ram Mohan Roy and the Brahma Samaj

Raja Ram Mohan Roy (1774—1833 A. D.) was one of the greatest social and religious reformers of the nineteenth century. He was born in an orthodox well-to-do Brahmin family in Bengal. He received the best education available at that time, and soon he acquired proficiency in Arabic, Persian and Sanskrit. Later on he learnt English and acquired some knowledge of French, Latin and Greek. This knowledge of various languages enabled him to make a comparative study of various religions of the world. He was in the service of the East India Company from 1805 to 1814 A. D. After giving up his job with the East India Company, Ram Mohan Roy settled in Calcutta and devoted himself to social work. He carried on a long struggle against some of the religious and social customs of the Hindu society. He vigorously opposed the worship of idols, the rigidity of the caste-system and the prevalence of ritualism. His aim was to unite the ethical principles of Christianity with the philosophy of the *upanishads*. He published a Bengali translation of the *Vedas* and of five of the principal *Upanishads* to prove his point.

In 1828 A. D. Raja Ram Mohan Roy founded the Brahma Samaj to propagate these ideas.

Raja Ram Mohan Roy wanted to reform the Hindu Society. He tried to uplift the position of women by giving them proper education and by winning for them a better status in society. The part he played in the abolition of *Sati* is the most prominent of his career as a great social reformer. It was with his support that William Bentinck passed a law in 1829 A. D. making *Sati* illegal and punishable by law. Ram Mohan Roy was a pioneer of English education in India and founded many schools to impart English education to Indians. He passed away in 1833 A. D.

The work begun by Ram Mohan Roy was continued by Maharshi Devandranath Tagore (father of Rabindranath Tagore) and Keshab Chandra Sen. The fervent devotion, wonderful eloquence and missionary zeal of Keshab Chandra Sen carried the influence of Brahma Samaj far outside the limits of Bengal. Everywhere the Samaj played a notable part as a reforming and uplifting agency.

Swami Dayananda Saraswathi and the Arya Samaj

By far, the most vigorous, effective and lasting religious organization set up in the nineteenth century in India was the Arya Samaj. Swami Dayananda Saraswathi, the founder of the Arya Samaj, was born in a Brahmin family in Gujarat in 1824 A. D. He studied Sanskrit and acquired a deep knowledge of the Vedas and other sacred books of the Hindus. He established the Arya Samaj in 1875 A. D. with the object of reorganizing the Hindu society and religion by basing it on the principles of the Vedas. "Back to the Vedas" was the motto of Dayananda Saraswathi. He denounced the caste system and the practice of child marriage. He encouraged female education and the remarriage of widows.

The movement rapidly spread, specially in Uttar Pradesh and the Punjab. The most commendable work of the Samaj was in the field of education. The Arya Samaj was a social and religious movement only in name. In reality it was an aggressive nationalist movement dominated by the Hindus.

Ramakrishna Mission and Swami Vivekananda

Ramakrishna Paramahansa after whom the movement is named was an ordinary priest without any formal education. His holy life and inspired teachings gave him the reputation of a saint. He believed that different religions were like different paths, all leading to the same goal of salvation. He said that all religions taught the worship of the same God under different names. The Ramakrishna Mission was founded by his great disciple Swami Vivekananda in 1896 A. D. to carry on his message and teachings.

Swami Vivekananda was born in 1863 A. D. He studied Indian and western philosophy, but did not get intellectual satisfaction. After becoming a disciple of Ramakrishna Paramahansa, Vivekananda attained perfect satisfaction. The great learning and wonderful personality of Vivekananda gathered round him a band of followers. With their co-operation, he established the Ramakrishna Mission.

Swami Vivekananda believed that Indian philosophy and spirituality were the best in the world. He wanted to combine western progress with India's spiritual background. Under his dynamic leadership, the Ramakrishna Mission adopted a comprehensive programme of social service. The Mission is running many schools and colleges and hospitals in different places in India. It has established branches in the United States and some other countries of the world. The Swamy passed away in 1902 A. D. The Ramakrishna Mission carries on his work. The teachings of Vivekananda gave to the people of India the self-confidence they greatly needed against the assumed superiority of western culture and civilization.

The Theosophical Society

The Theosophical Society was founded in the United States in 1875 A. D. by Madam H. P. Blavatsky, a Russian and Colonel H. S. Olcott, an American. The Society was established in India by Colonel Olcott at Adayar in 1886 A. D. However, it was under an Irish lady, Mrs. Annie Besant who came to India in 1893 A. D., that the Society became a reformist movement in India. The Theosophical Society glorified the traditional Indian religions and philosophy. Though the Society was primarily a religious movement, Mrs. Besant devoted herself to social and political reforms as well. She gave a tremendous impetus to the revivalest movement then going on in India. The essence of her teachings was that the regeneration of India could be brought about only by the revival of her ancient religious ideals. With that object in view she started the Central Hindu School at Banaras, which gradually grew into a college and finally developed into the Hindu University. The Theosophical Society gave strength to Hindu revivalism and proved to be an important factor in the social and religious reform movements.

Women's Movement

The nineteenth century also saw the origin and development of the Women's movement and growing political consciousness among women. Women began to take a leading role in public and social activities. More and more women received education and joined public services also. Leaders of revivalist movements patronised the Women's Movement. In 1829 A. D. *Sati* was abolished by William Bentinck with the active support of Ram Mohan Roy. Many girl schools were set up during 1855—1858 A. D. Steps were taken

to prevent child marriage and to permit the remarriage of widows. The Civil Marriages Act of 1872 prohibited early marriages, made polygamy penal, and permitted widow re-marriages and intercaste marriages. In 1889 A. D. a school was established at Poona for the benefit of the Hindu widows. It later developed into the Indian Women's University. The All India Women's Conference founded the Lady Irwin College in May 1926. This college was staffed and managed entirely by women. The Sarda Act of 1930 is regarded as a great landmark in the progress of Indian women. The Act raised the minimum age of marriage of boys to 18 and girls to 14. In 1949 A. D. the Act was amended to make the marriageable age of girls 15. In the Round Table Conference held in 1930—1931 A. D. three women from India also took part. Women played a leading role in the nation's struggle for independence.

INDIAN NATIONALISM

The most striking event in the history of India during the nineteenth century was the remarkable progress of nationalism throughout the country. Indian nationalism was much more than a political agitation. It was the revival of a historical tradition, the liberation of the soul of a people. Many factors helped the rise and progress of nationalism in India.

British Policy of Discrimination

One of the major factors that helped the rise and progress of nationalism was the policy of discrimination pursued by the British rulers against Indians during the years following the suppression of the Revolt of 1857. The number of British soldiers was increased in the army, while that of Indians was reduced. The Indians were removed from the artillery sections which now passed entirely into the hands of the British. Indians were excluded from higher posts in government in spite of repeated promises to the contrary. In order to pacify the Indians, the British admitted some of them to the legislative councils, both central and provincial. But these councils had no effective power and the number of Indians was only negligible. The Ilbert Bill controversy brought out clearly the extent of the discrimination. This incident gave a rude shock to the Indians. They found that they were being treated as aliens in their own country.

Economic Trouble

The masses suffered from economic troubles. There was unemployment among the middle classes. The economic system of India was adjusted to the needs of the people of England. The interests of Indians were completely ignored. Famines broke out repeatedly. The government did not take proper measures against

famines nor did it show any interest in preventing deaths by starvation. National independence came to be regarded as the only solution to the economic ills of the country.

Influence of Western Education

The establishment of the British rule brought Indians into close contact with the West. With the introduction of Western education, the Indians began to be conscious of their rights. Many Indians went to England and other countries of Europe for higher education. They became imbibed with the ideas of the American and French revolutions. They came back to India with revolutionary ideas. They spread these ideas among the common people. The study of the English language enabled educated people of different parts of India to understand one another. English became the *Lingua Franca* of the educated people of India. The spread of English contributed significantly to the development of national consciousness in India.

Re-discovery of India's Past

Scholars such as Sir Charles Wilkins, Sir William Jones, James Prinsep, Max Mueller, Alexander Cunningham and Swami Vivekananda delved deep into the glories of India's past and found that India could be proud of a rich heritage. With the rediscovery of India's glorious past, a new sense of nationalism filled the minds of the Indians.

Contribution of Reformers

Religious and social reformers like Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Swami Dayananda Saraswathi, Swami Vivekananda and Annie Besant prepared the ground for national awakening in India. Their movements, though primarily religious, were, at the same time, national. They made the people aware of their great heritage and aroused in them patriotic feelings. Religion inspired nationalism. It was Swami Dayananda Saraswathi who first declared "India for Indians."

Contribution of the Indian Press and Literature

The Indian Press and literature also played a vital role in the awakening of the people. The Indian Press, and especially the vernacular papers, generally criticised the unjust policies of the British rulers. It was this criticism that led Lord Lytton to pass the Vernacular Press Act in 1878 A. D. As the Act did not apply to English newspapers, it was a highly discriminatory measure and caused great discontent among the Indians. Although the Act was withdrawn by Lord Ripon it left a sense of deep discontent among the Indians. Indian literature of the period also had a powerful impact. Books like *Ananda Math* written by Bankim Chandra Chatterjee inculcated patriotic sentiments and national consciousness.

in the Indians. The song "*Vande Mataram*" that thrilled the entire Indian population was taken from this book.

STRUGGLE FOR FREEDOM

Nationalist sentiments grew rapidly among the people in the second half of the nineteenth century. The new middle class who wanted to get more and more opportunities found the English putting difficulties in their way. Therefore, they decided to organize themselves and agitate for the redressal of their grievances. Associations of Indians began to appear. An association of the landlords of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, the Land-holders' Society, came into being in 1837 A. D. In the same year another organization called Bengal British Indian Society was formed to protect and promote general public interests. These two organizations merged in 1851 A. D. to form the British Indian Association in Bengal. Similar associations were established in Bombay and Madras in 1852 A. D. In 1866 A. D. Dadabhai Naoroji organized the East India Association in London to influence the British public. The India League was founded in 1875 A. D. by prominent political leaders who felt that an all-India organization was necessary. The India League was soon replaced by the Indian Association founded by Surendranath Banerji in 1876 A. D. The Indian Association conceived the idea of an All India National Conference. This Conference met in Calcutta in December 1883 and it was attended by representatives from all parts of India. This was the first political organization of an All-India character.

Formation of the Indian National Congress

Soon after the meeting of the All India National Conference, Allan Octavian Hume, a retired English Civil servant, proposed, in a letter addressed to the graduates of the Calcutta University, the formation of an organization that should work for the moral, material and political progress of India. He even asked the support of the government and Lord Dufferin, the then viceroy of India, encouraged the formation of such an organization. Mr. Hume's plan was taken up by some prominent Indian leaders like Dadabhai Naoroji, Badr-ud-din Tayabji, Pheroze Shah Mehta and others. Thus, the Indian National Congress was born in 1885 A. D. The birth of the Congress was the most significant event in the history of India's struggle for freedom.

The first meeting of the Indian National Congress was held at Bombay under the presidentship of W. C. Banerjee, a prominent Bengali barrister. The meeting was attended by seventy-two delegates from all over India. This meeting was held in December 1885, while the All India National Conference was also holding its meeting in Calcutta. It was found that the two organizations had the same

object in view, and therefore, the All India National Conference was absorbed into the Indian National Congress in 1886 A. D. Surendranath Banerji, W. C. Banerjee, Dadabhai Naoroji, Pheroze Shah Mehta, M. G. Ranade, B. G. Tilak, Gopalakrishna Gokhale, B. C. Pal, Madana Mohana Malavyya, Aravinda Ghosh, Lala Lajpat Rai, Subrahmoniya Iyer and Sankaran Nair were some of the most talented Indians who took part in Congress work during the early days.

Constitutional Agitation

The early relations between the Congress and the government were cordial. The moderates who dominated the Congress believed in the slow process of constitutional reforms which would provide political education for the Indians. They followed the principle of 'Pray, Petition and Protest'. They used to pass resolutions praying the government to redress the grievances of the people; they used to submit petitions to that effect; and if the government was indifferent to their prayers, they protested against it. The Congress demands pertained to employment of more Indians to higher posts, appointment of Indians to the Executive Council, simultaneous examinations in India and England for the Indian Civil Service, expansion of the provincial and central legislative assemblies, provision for more facilities for education, and reduction of military expenditure. But as even the moderate demands of the Congress went unheeded, it developed into an "opposition to the Government," and started a constitutional agitation for constitutional and representative government. To pacify the nationalists, the government passed the Indian Councils Act of 1892.

Development of Extremism

The Act of 1892 did not satisfy the younger members of the Congress. They formed an extremist party within the Congress under the leadership of Bal Gangadhar Tilak, Lala Lajpat Rai, B. C. Pal and Aravinda Ghosh. Bengal was the stronghold of the extremists. The partition of Bengal effected by Lord Curzon in 1905 A. D. roused the opposition of not only of Bengal, but of the whole country. The victory of Japan in the Russo-Japanese War in 1905 A. D. had a powerful effect on the Indian National Movement. It filled the peoples of East with new hopes. Nationalism became intense all over India. However, Tilak's ideas were not welcomed by many Congressmen who favoured a moderate approach. His extremism led to a split in the Congress at its Surat Session held in 1907 A. D.

Morley-Minto Reforms

After the Surat session, the extremist party started a terrorist movement in India. Lord Minto took repressive measures against the extremists. But repression failed to restore order. So Minto

tried to win over the Muslims to his side by promising separate electorates and to conciliate the moderates by another instalment of reform. He recommended certain constitutional changes known as Morley-Minto Reforms. These changes were embodied in the Indian Councils Act of 1909. It enlarged the Legislative Councils both Central and Provincial, extended their functions, and for the first time, legally recognized the principle of election. The moderates welcomed the Reforms. But the Reforms failed to attract the extremists, and in actual working the Reforms were found to be unsatisfactory. The creation of separate electorates for the Muslims ultimately led to the partition of the country.

World War I and the Lucknow Pact of 1916

When the World War I broke out in 1914 A. D. the Congress actively co-operated with the British government. The Allied propaganda that the war was waged in the name of democracy and national self-determination aroused much enthusiasm in India. Indians hoped that when the war was over, India would be given Dominion status. The breach between the two parties in the Congress also had been healed during this time. Mrs. Annie Besant started the Home Rule Movement. She demanded self-government for Indians within the British empire. As England stood face to face with Turkey which was a German ally, anti-British feeling developed among the Indian Muslims. Taking advantage of this, the Congress leaders tried to come to an understanding with the Muslim leaders in their struggle against the British. Accordingly, the Congress, the Home Rule League and the Muslims together adopted the famous Lucknow Pact, also known as the Congress-League Scheme, a plan envisaging Dominion status for India. The Congress agreed to separate electorates for the Muslims. But the British government refused to grant Home Rule. Both the Congress and the Muslim League strongly resented the British attitude and continued to agitate against the government.

Montague-Chelmsford Reforms

The British armies faced a disastrous defeat at the hands of Turks in 1916 A. D. There was an uproar in the House of Commons against the failure of the British government in securing Indian co-operation in the war. In response to this criticism, Mr. Montague, the Secretary of State for India, announced a change of policy in the famous declaration of 20 August 1917. Mr. Montague said that the goal of British policy in India was "the progressive realisation of responsible government". The Congress leaders considered the declaration as a clear promise to grant Dominion status and appealed the people to join the military and help the war preparations. Mr. Montague, and Lord Chelmsford, the viceroy, prepared a joint scheme for the first steps to be taken in this direction, and on the

basis of the Montague-Chelmsford Report, the Government of India Act of 1919 was passed. The Act introduced Dyarchy in the provinces and provided non-official majority in the Central Legislature. The Moderates accepted the reforms and formed the Indian National Liberal Federation to work them. But the Congressmen were disappointed with the reforms and appealed the people to boycott the elections.

Mahatma Gandhi's Assumption of Leadership

It was about this time that Mahatma Gandhi assumed the leadership of the national movement. Henceforth, the Congress ceased to be a middle class organization, and became a revolutionary mass movement. During the war he had advocated unconditional support to the British cause. But the government, in order to put down the violent activities of the extremists, passed the Rowlatt Act which empowered the government to lock up anyone without trial.

The Jalianwalla Bagh Massacre

The Rowlatt Act had shocked the Mahatma so much that he called upon the people to agitate against it through peaceful means. People held a huge public meeting at Jalianwalla Bagh in Amritsar on 13 April 1919 to protest against arrests. General Dyer, with a small troop, surrounded the park where the people had assembled and shot dead 379 persons in a few minutes. This unprovoked massacre of unarmed civilian population, known as the Jalianwalla Bagh Massacre, roused the passions of the people all over the country.

At the Nagpur Session of the Indian National Congress held in 1920 A. D., Mahatma Gandhi advised the country to launch a non-co-operation movement against the British in order to obtain redressal of grievances. Just at the hour of triumph violence broke out in some places. At Chauri Chaura in the Gorakhpur district an infuriated mob set fire to the police buildings and 22 policemen were burnt to death. Gandhiji was shocked and he called off the civil disobedience movement in 1922 A. D. He then retired from politics and diverted his activities towards the spreading of *Khadi* and the removal of untouchability.

The Swaraj Party

The suspension of the mass civil disobedience movement led a section of Congressmen to organize a new party known as the Swaraj Party. Its leaders were Desabandhu C. R. Das and Pandit Motilal Nehru. The party decided on re-entering the Councils with the avowed object of wrecking the constitution from within. The Swarajists obtained notable success in Bengal and the Central Provinces and did much to discredit the Dyarchy.

The Simon Commission

Since the reforms of 1919 had practically failed, in 1927 A. D. Parliament appointed a commission under the Chairmanship of Sir John Simon to make recommendations regarding a further measure of reform. As the commission contained no Indian, all the political parties of the country boycotted it.

Nehru Report

An All-India All-Parties Conference met at Delhi in February 1928 and appointed a small committee to draft a constitution. Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru and Pandit Motilal Nehru were the most prominent members of this committee. The result of their labour was the Nehru Report. It recommended Dominion status for India. The British government refused to accept the Report.

Demand for Purna Swaraj

In 1930 A. D. at its Lahore session held under the presidency of Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, the Congress declared *Purna Swaraj*, or complete independence as its goal.

The Salt Satyagraha and Gandhi-Irwin Pact

Now Gandhiji again entered active politics and started a *Satyagraha* and no-rent campaign. While Sardar Patel assisted Gandhiji in the *Satyagraha* and no-rent campaign at Bardoli, Jawaharlal Nehru and Subhas Chandra Bose agitated for *Purna Swaraj*. On 6 April 1930 Gandhiji started on his famous Dandi march to break the salt laws. Soon there was a country-wide agitation. About 60,000 volunteers went to jail. Meanwhile, the First Round Table Conference had met in London on 13 November 1930 to discuss the shape of the constitutional reforms to be introduced in India. As the Congress did not send its representative, the Conference was adjourned. An attempt was again made to induce the Congress to attend the Round Table Conference. In 1931 A. D. the Gandhi-Irwin Pact was signed by which the Civil Disobedience Movement was suspended and Gandhiji agreed to take part in the Round Table Conferences. Mahatma Gandhi attended the Second Round Table Conference held in 1931 A. D. as the sole representative of the Congress. He could not come to an agreement with Muslim leaders on the issue of minority representation. Sir Samuel Hoare, the Secretary of State for India, declared his intention of allotting separate electorates to Harijans also. Mahatma Gandhi returned to India and revived the Civil Disobedience Movement. He was jailed again within three weeks of his return.

Communal Award and Poona Pact, 1932—1933 A. D.

The British Prime Minister announced the Communal Award providing separate electorates to Harijans. The idea was to separate

the Harijans from the main current of the society. Mahatma Gandhi went on a fast as a protest against the Award. The Hindu and Harijan leaders met him and signed the Poona Pact of 1932 providing reserved seats instead of separate electorates to Harijans. Mahatma Gandhi, thereupon, gave up his fast.

The Act of 1935 and Office Acceptance

The Third Round Table Conference was held in 1932 A. D. in which Mahatma Gandhi did not participate. A White Paper was issued at the end of the Conference which formed the basis for a further instalment of reform in the shape of the Government of India Act of 1935. The Act provided autonomy for the provinces.

Despite the opposition of Congress, the Government of India Act of 1935 was passed. The Congress decided to contest the elections in order to wreck the constitution. Congress found itself in a majority in six out of the eleven provinces. On securing the assurance of non-interference by the government, the Congress formed ministries in the provinces in which it obtained a majority.

World War II and Constitutional Deadlock

The Second World War broke out in 1939 A. D. and the British government declared India to be belligerent without consulting her leaders. Upon this, the Congress ministers in all the provinces resigned and the government suspended the constitution in these provinces. The deadlock that ensued continued till 1946 A. D.

Efforts to Solve the Deadlock

The Congress, though out of office, offered to co-operate with the war efforts of the allies if a provisional National Government was set up at least at the centre. But the British would not yield. The viceroy, Lord Linlithgo, in a statement published on 8 August 1940 made this clear. At the same time he held out the prospect of a representative constituent assembly after the war was over. This statement is known as the "August offer." The Congress rejected the offer and as a protest, Gandhiji started the campaign of individual civil disobedience. In 1940 A. D. the Muslim League passed a resolution at its Lahore session demanding the establishment of Pakistan composed of the Muslim-majority provinces. It aggravated the communal tension, and henceforth, the communal problem became an insuperable barrier to India's progress. The proposals of Sir Stafford Cripps, that Dominion status would be given after the war, was also rejected by the Congress.

The Quit India Resolution and the Revolt of 1942

After the failure of the Cripps offer, the Congress raised the slogan of 'Quit India.' The Congress passed the 'Quit India' resolution on 8 August 1942. The British government immediately

arrested Mahatma Gandhi, the members of the working committee and several other leaders. On 9 August the people rose in rebellion with 'Quit India' as the battlecry. It was a revolt of the people against tyranny and oppression and can be compared to the fall of the Bastille in the history of France or the October Revolution of Russia. The movement was ruthlessly put down.

The Attitude of the Muslim League

The League advised the Muslims to keep aloof from the Movement. 'Hindustan will have to be divided' became the new slogan of the League.

The Wavell Plan, 1945

Lord Wavell in June 1945 announced the setting up of an interim government composed of the leaders of all parties in India. He convened a conference to discuss his proposals. But it failed to achieve anything as no agreement could be reached regarding the interim arrangements.

The I. N. A. and Armed Forces Risings

Meanwhile, Subhash Chandra Bose who was the President of the Indian National Congress during 1939 A. D. secretly travelled to Berlin through Afghanistan and Russia. From there he came to Malaya and Burma, and organized an Indian National Army (I. N. A.) mainly with Indian soldiers whom Japanese had captured as war prisoners. Under the leadership of Subhash Chandra Bose who was now affectionately addressed by his followers as Netaji, the I. N. A. fought against the British army in Assam. In spite of their dedication to the cause of the country's freedom, the I. N. A. was defeated and captured when the British re-occupied Burma. The I. N. A. showed that the British could no longer rely on the Indian army which had been the chief instrument of British rule in India. Further evidence of the changed attitude of the Indian armed forces was provided by a mutiny of the seamen of the Indian Navy at Bombay in February 1946, and by strikes in the Air Force, Signal Corps and the Police.

The Cabinet Mission, 1946

Soon after this the Labour Party came to office in Britain. The Labour Government made fresh attempts to solve the Indian political deadlock. The British Cabinet sent a delegation to India composed of Sir Stafford Cripps, Lord Pethick Lawrence and A. V. Alexander. The Mission declared against the partition of the country and laid down a compromise formula for the future constitution of India. Apart from this, a plan for interim government was also put forward by the Mission. The Congress entered the interim government after prolonged negotiations, but the League kept out and started an agitation all over the country. However, in October 1946, the

League also joined the interim government, but refused to co-operate in the constitution making and announced its intention to resort to 'direct action' to achieve Pakistan. Thus, there was division in the interim government, the constitution making was delayed and the Congress-League rift became more acute than ever before.

The Withdrawal Plan

At this critical moment, the British government made a momentous declaration on 20 February 1947 announcing their intention "to take necessary steps to effect the transference of power to responsible Indian hands by a date not later than June 1948." Lord Mountbatten who succeeded Lord Wavell suggested that partition of the country was the only feasible solution and proposed a plan for the same. On 31 June 1947 the Mountbatten Plan was formally accepted by both parties.

The Indian Independence Act, 1947

Now the British Parliament passed the Indian Independence Act on July 18 1947. On 15 August 1947 India became independent and the two independent dominions of India and Pakistan came into existence. A little before midnight on 14 August, Pandit Nehru addressing the Constituent Assembly said, "On the stroke of midnight, while the world sleeps, India will wake to life and freedom. Today we end a period of ill-fortune, and India discovers herself again.... Before the birth of freedom, we endured all the pains of labour, and our hearts are heavy with the memory of this sorrow. Nevertheless, the past is over, and it is the future that beckons us."

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Give an account of the social and religious movements in India in the nineteenth century A. D.
2. What were the factors responsible for the rise of national movement in India?
3. Trace the stages in the struggle for independence in India.
4. Write an account of the rise and growth of the Indian National Congress during the period from 1885 to 1919 A. D.
5. Trace the progress of the Indian Independence movement from 1900 A. D.
6. Describe the part played by Mahatma Gandhi in the Indian struggle for freedom.

7. What led to the partition of India? Mention its results.

Short-answer Type

1. Estimate the services of Raja Ram Mohan Roy to Indian national awakening.
2. Point out the part played by the Arya Samaj in the rise of national awakening in India.
3. How did the British policy of discrimination cause discontent among the Indians?
4. How did western education create national consciousness of the Indians?
5. How did the rediscovery of India's glorious past foster feelings of nationalism?
6. What was the role of the Indian press and Indian literature in the awakening of the people of India in the nineteenth century A. D.?
7. How did the economic exploitation by the British lead to widespread discontent in India?
8. Trace the growth of the national movement in India between 1885 and 1900 A. D.

Objective Type

A. Name the following:

- (a) The founder of the Brahma Samaj.
- (b) Two leaders who continued the work of Raja Ram Mohan Roy.
- (c) The founder of the Arya Samaj.
- (d) The founder of the Ramakrishna Mission.
- (e) The Irish Lady associated with the Theosophical Society in India.
- (f) The author of *Ananda Math*.
- (g) The founder of the Indian Association of Calcutta established in 1876 A. D.
- (h) The founder of the Indian National Congress.
- (i) The founder of the Home Rule League.
- (j) The place where 22 policemen were burnt.
- (k) The authors of the Nehru Report of 1928.

- (l) The President of the Indian National Congress when the resolution on *Purna Swaraj* was passed.
 (m) The author of the August Offer.
 (n) The members of the Cabinet Mission
 (o) The author of the Withdrawal Plan.

B. Match the following:

A	B
1. Raja Ram Mohan Roy	9 August 1942
2. Dayananda Saraswathi	August Offer
3. Swami Vivekananda	Dominion Status
4. Allan Octavian Hume	Second Round Table Conference
5. Bala Gangadhar Tilak	Lahore Congress, 1930
6. Mrs. Annie Besant	T. B. Saprú
7. Jalianwalla Bagh Massacre.	General Dyer
8. Nehru Report	Home Rule League
9. <i>Purna Swaraj</i>	Extremism
10. Gandhi-Irwin Pact	Indian National Congress
11. Cripps Offer	Re-discovery of India's past
12. Lord Linlithgo	Back to the Vedas
13. Quit India	Brahma Samaj

CHAPTER XXVIII

Growth of Representative Institutions

The period from 1858 to 1947 A. D. which saw the development of nationalism in India culminating in the attainment of independence also saw the slow and gradual growth of representative institutions in the country. By the Charter Act of 1853 the Governor-General's Council was enlarged for purposes of legislation by the addition of six new members called the legislative councillors. The Council as expanded came to be called the Legislative Council as distinguished from the smaller council which dealt with executive business. This was the humble beginning of the system of law-making through a legislative body separated from an executive body. The composition and powers of this body were modified progressively from time to time by a series of Acts passed by the British Parliament during this period. These Acts were the Indian Councils Act of 1861, the Indian Councils Act of 1892, the Indian Councils Act of 1909, the Government of India Act of 1919, and the Government of India Act of 1935. These Acts passed by an alien Parliament formed the significant landmarks in the growth of representative institutions in India.

THE INDIAN COUNCILS ACT OF 1861

The Revolt of 1857 revealed the fact that the British government had no way of knowing Indian public opinion. As a consequence there was no understanding between the rulers and the ruled. Hence, it was decided to associate a few Indians with the legislative business of the government. The result was the Indian Councils Act of 1861.

The act added to the Viceroy's Executive Council a fifth member who was required to be a jurist. The Viceroy was empowered to enlarge the executive council for legislative purposes by nominating not less than 6 and not more than 12 members. Half of the nominated members were to be Indians. Their term of office was two years. The members had no power to ask questions or to discuss the budget. Viceroy's assent was necessary for every Act passed by the Legislative Council. The Viceroy could issue ordinances in times of emergency. They would be in force for a period of six months.

The Act restored to the provinces the power of legislation taken away from them by the Charter Act of 1833. Governor's Executive Councils were enlarged for legislative purposes by nominating 4 to 8 members, half of whom were to be Indians. The Provincial Legislative Council was only to make laws. It had no control over the Executive. The laws passed by it were to be approved both by the Governor and Viceroy.

The significance of the Act consisted in the fact that for the first time Indians were nominated to the Executive Councils of the Viceroy and the governors. But they were not to be the representatives of the people.

THE INDIAN COUNCILS ACT OF 1892

The three decades following the passing of the Indian Councils Act of 1861 witnessed a great growth of nationalism in India. The national spirit found itself expressed in the formation of the Indian National Congress in 1885 A. D. The Congress passed resolutions requesting the enlargement of the Legislative Councils established by the Act of 1861. Europeans living in India advocated the increase of nominated members. On the recommendations made by Lord Dufferin, the British Parliament passed the Indian Councils Act of 1892 A. D.

The Act increased the size of the Central Legislative Council as well as the Provincial Legislative Councils. The Central Legislative Council was to have 10 to 16 nominated members in addition to the Executive Councillors. In the provinces 8 to 20 members were to be nominated for the purpose of enlarging the Governor's Executive Council for legislative purpose. Two-fifths of the additional members were to be non-officials. Some of them were to be nominated on the basis of recommendations made by the local bodies like Municipal Councils, District Boards, Chambers of Commerce, etc. In making nominations, views expressed by certain associations were given due weight and thus the principle of indirect election was recognized in constituting the councils. The Legislative Councils were given more powers. The members could ask questions and discuss the budget. The President was empowered to disallow questions without showing any reason.

The Act marked a definite advance on the Act of 1861. Members of the Councils were given some control over the Executive and, for the first time, the principle of election, although indirect, was given recognition. The powers given to the members of the councils to ask questions and discuss the budget foreshadowed the evolution of parliamentary institutions in India. However, the Act failed to arouse much popular enthusiasm as its provisions fell far short of the demands of the nationalists.

THE INDIAN COUNCILS ACT OF 1909

The partition of Bengal effected by Lord Curzon fanned the flame of the nationalist movement in India. The victory of Japan in the Russo-Japanese War of 1905 filled the peoples of the East with new hopes. Nationalism became intense all over India. The extremist party in the Congress started a terrorist movement. As a result, Lord Minto realised the need of constitutional reform to satisfy the people. Lord Morley who was Secretary of State for India at this time also favoured the introduction of reform. A Bill was introduced in the British Parliament for this purpose in 1908 A. D. It was passed and became an Act in May 1909. This Act, the Indian Councils Act of 1909, came to be known as Morley-Minto reforms.

The Act raised the number of additional members of the Central Legislative Council to 60. Out of them, 33 were to be nominated and 27 were to be elected. Thus, there was official majority at the Centre. The elected members were to be chosen by Muslims, landlords and Chambers of Commerce of Bombay and Bengal. Thus, separate electorates were provided for Muslims, in which Muslim candidates were to be elected by Muslim voters. The strength of the Provincial Legislative Councils was also increased. In bigger Provinces like Madras, Bombay and Bengal, there would be 50 additional members. Majority of the members were to be non-officials elected by the universities, landlords, Chambers of Commerce, Muslims and members of local bodies.

The members were given the power of asking supplementary questions. They could move resolutions on matters of public interest. Voting was to be taken on the discussed subjects. But some items were declared as non-votable.

One Indian was appointed to the Viceroy's Executive Council. Two Indians were taken into the India Council.

The Act of 1909 did not satisfy the Congress leaders. The Congress demanded responsible government. But the Act had only enlarged the existing Legislative Councils. By providing separate electorates for Muslims, communal venom was put into the body politic of India. It was this that led to the partition of the country within a period of less than four decades. The system of direct election introduced by the Act was a very restricted one. The legislatures had no real control over the executive.

THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA ACT OF 1919

The Indian Councils Act of 1909 did not satisfy the Indians. The disillusionment created by the Act of 1909 in the political atmosphere of India strengthened the demand for self-government. Mrs. Annie Besant and Lokamanya Tilak started the Home Rule Movement in 1915 A. D. Meanwhile, World War I had started and the British

suffered defeats in Mesopotamia at the hands of Turkey. Members of the British Parliament suggested to the Secretary of State to secure the co-operation of Indians in the war-effort by promising constitutional reforms. Accordingly, Mr. Montague, the Secretary of State for India, declared in the House of Commons on 20 August 1917 that "The policy of the British government is that of the increasing association of Indians in every branch of the administration and the gradual development of self-governing institutions with a view to the progressive realization of responsible government in India as an integral part of the British empire". At the end of the war, in accordance with this declaration and on the basis of a joint report prepared by Mr. Montague and Lord Chelmsford, known as the Montague-Chelmsford Report, the British Parliament passed the Government of India Act of 1919.

The Act introduced a bicameral legislature at the Centre. It consisted of the Council of State and the Central Legislative Assembly. The Council of State consisted of 60 members, of whom 34 were elected. Its tenure was 5 years. The voters were highly propertied people, members of University Senates, President of District Boards and Chairmen of Municipalities. The Central Legislative Assembly consisted of 145 members of whom 35 were elected. The franchise was limited to propertied people. The tenure of the house was 3 years. Thus, there was elected majority in both houses.

The Act empowered the Governor-General to over-ride the decisions of the Central Legislature. Three Indians were to be nominated to the Viceroy's Executive Council. The members of the Executive Council were not responsible to the legislature. The Government of India began to lose its unitary character. The subjects of administration were divided into Central subjects and Provincial subjects. Subjects like defence, communications and currency were handled by the Central government. Subjects like public works, education and local self-government were handled by the Provincial government.

The Act introduced Dyarchy or partial responsible government in the provinces. The Provincial subjects were divided into Reserved and Transferred subjects. Important items like Police and Revenue were listed under Reserved subjects. They were handled by the members of the Governor's Executive Council. Subjects such as Health and Education were termed as Transferred subjects. They were entrusted to ministers who were members of the Legislature. The ministers were responsible both to the Governor and to the Provincial Legislature. The Provincial Legislature was unicameral. The Provincial Legislative Assemblies were expanded. Their strength varied from 60 to 140. Seventy percent of the members of the Provincial Legislative Assembly was to be elected. The Governor was given over-riding powers. The system of separate electorates

for Muslims on communal basis was continued. It was extended to Anglo-Indians, Europeans, Sikhs and Indian Christians.

The Government of India Act of 1919 was in operation till 1937 A. D. The Dyarchy set up by the Act in the provinces did not work well. There was no co-operation between the ministers and councillors. As finance was a Reserved Subject, ministers were unable to get the necessary funds for the projects which they wanted to implement. As the ministers were drawn from different sections of the legislature, they lacked team-spirit. The civil servants were more under Governor's control than under the control of the minister to whom they were attached. The ministers were responsible to the Governor as well as to the Legislature. Thus, the ministers had to serve two masters. The extra-ordinary powers granted to the Viceroy and the Governors nullified the concessions that the Act had allowed to the Indians.

THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA ACT OF 1935

In 1927 A. D. the British government appointed a Statutory Commission under the chairmanship of Sir John Simon to review and report on the working of the Act of 1919. The Commission ignored the national demand for a responsible government at the Centre and recommended a Central Executive as irresponsible as before. The British Prime Minister convened Round Table Conferences at London to evolve a solution to the constitutional problem. Mahatma Gandhi attended the Second Round Table Conference in 1931 A. D. At the Third Round Table Conference held in 1932 A. D. it was proposed that India should have a federal form of government. On the basis of the deliberations of the Conference, the Government of India Act of 1935 was passed.

The Act provided for a federal form of government in India. The All-India Federation was to consist of the eleven British provinces and the Native States which agreed to join it. The Federation would come into being only when a sufficient number of States acceded to it. The subjects of administration were divided into three categories, viz., the Federal List, the Provincial List and the Concurrent List.

The Governor-General was to be the head of the Federal Executive. He was to have discretionary powers and could over-ride the decisions of the legislature. He would not be bound to follow the advice of the ministers. He was to be answerable only to the Secretary of State. Dyarchy was to be introduced at the Centre. The Federal subjects were divided into Reserved Subjects and Transferred Subjects. The Reserved Subjects like Defence and Foreign Affairs were to be entrusted to the members of the Governor-General's Executive Council. The Transferred Subjects like Communications

and Posts and Telegraphs were assigned to the Ministers who were members of the Federal Legislature. The Ministers were responsible to both the legislature and the Governor-General.

The Federal Legislature was to have two Chambers, viz., the Council of State and the House of Assembly. The Council of State would consist of 260 members. Out of them 156 were to be from British India and 104 from the Native States. The representatives from the Provinces were to be elected by the voters. The members from the Native States were to be nominated by the rulers. The Council of State was a permanent body, one-third of its members retiring after every three years. The House of Assembly was to have 375 members, out of whom 250 were to be indirectly elected by the Provincial Legislatures and 125 to be nominated by the rulers of the Native States. The tenure of the House of Assembly was five years.

A Federal Court consisting of a Chief Justice and six other Judges were to be set up at Delhi. It would have the powers to settle the disputes arising between the Centre and the federating units and between one federating unit and another.

The Governor was the head of the Provincial Executive. He was assisted by a Council of Ministers. The Act of 1935 established full autonomy in the provinces. Dyarchy was abolished and all provincial subjects were transferred to the management of ministers responsible to the Legislature. But the Governors had special responsibilities regarding certain subjects, and in regard to certain others they could act in their discretion.

The Provincial Legislatures consisted of two Chambers in six out of the eleven provinces. The Chambers were known as the Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly. The Legislative Council was a permanent body, one third of its members retiring after every three years. It was elected by the graduates, university senators, etc.,. Some members were nominated by the Governor. The strength of the Council varied from 65 to 22. The Legislative Assembly was elected for a period of 5 years. The members were elected on the basis of communal and separate electorates. Separate electorates were provided for the Muslims, Sikhs, Europeans and Indian Christians. Its strength varied from 250 to 50.

The Secretary of State for India was to control the Indian government on behalf of the Crown. His control over the Provincial Governors was relaxed. The India Council was abolished and in its place, a body of advisers to the Secretary of State was appointed.

As the Native States refused to join the Federation, the Federal part of the Act was not enforced. The Central Government continued to function according to the Act of 1919. The Act provided for the formation of the provinces of Sind and Orissa. Burma was separated from India. Elections were held in accordance with the

provisions of the Act and popular ministries were formed in the provinces. The Congress formed ministries in seven provinces whereas the Muslim League captured power in two provinces. Coalition ministries were formed in two provinces. Thus, the Government of India Act of 1935 introduced important changes only in the provinces. This constitutional position continued till the enactment of the Indian Independence Act of 1947.

QUESTIONS

Essay Type

1. Trace the growth of representative institutions in India in the nineteenth century A. D.
2. Narrate the circumstances that led to the passing of the Government of India Act of 1919. Point out its importance.
3. Bring out the main provisions of the Government of India Act of 1935.

Short-answer Type

1. Point out the importance of the Indian Councils Act of 1861.
2. Mention the main provisions of the Indian Councils Act of 1892.
3. Bring out the importance of the Indian Councils Act of 1909.

CHAPTER XXIX

Independent India

The attainment of independence opened a new chapter in the history of India. The era of freedom was ushered in the midst of great rejoicings. But freedom did not immediately bring peace and orderly progress to the people. The partition of the country itself which brought independence created problems of enormous magnitude. The bitterness and hatred it engendered took away the life of Mahatma Gandhi, the Father of the Nation. The problem of the innumerable Native States which became free along with British India was complex. They had to be integrated into the Indian Union. Political stability had to be achieved through the adoption of a durable constitutional system for the country. The political freedom achieved through a struggle that extended over a century and a half had to be made real to the dumb millions of the country by ensuring economic freedom to them. As one of the biggest democracies in the world, India was called upon to play a positive role in world affairs as the champion of freedom and peace. The country was faced with the aggressions of close neighbours also. There was the big problem of preserving the hard-won freedom from the challenges posed by dictatorial forces operating within the country. In tackling all these problems, the people of this country acted boldly with a sense of commitment that earned universal admiration.

PARTITION AND REFUGEE PROBLEM

The partition of the country posed a big challenge the new-born nation. Communal riots broke out and continued with increasing intensity and ferocity in the Punjab, Sind and Delhi. Millions of men, women and children had to flee from one Dominion to the other leaving behind all their possessions. No words can describe the sufferings of those who were turned out of their homes and deprived of their belongings. More than 5 million Hindus and Sikhs migrated to India. The problem of resettling the refugees and rehabilitating them occupied the attention of the government in the first year of independence. Prompt measures were taken to afford relief to the sufferers.

Martyrdom of Mahatma Gandhi

Mahatma Gandhi was unhappy about the partition of the country and the communal riots that broke out following the partition. He

went about as the apostle of peace and brotherhood of man. The magic presence of Mahatma Gandhi avoided bloodshed and established peace wherever he went. On Independence Day, he was far away from Delhi, in Calcutta. When blood-stream flowed everywhere else, Calcutta remained comparatively calm. Mahatma Gandhi returned to Delhi when riots broke out there. In protest against the bloodshed Mahatma Gandhi started a fast on 13 January 1948. On 18 January the fast was brought to a close by the efforts of the Peace Committee of Delhi. Mahatma Gandhi's efforts led to a gradual improvement in the situation, and Muslims found it possible to move about without fear. This infuriated some Hindu communalists who thought that Mahatma Gandhi was protecting the Muslims in India while in Pakistan Hindus and Sikhs were being killed or forced to flee the country. Attempts were made on the Mahatma's life, but he did not care. On 30 January a young man, Nathu Ram Vinayaka Godse by name, fired three shots at Mahatma Gandhi as he was going to his prayer meeting in the Birla House, and he was killed. The noblest soul of the present century, one of the greatest of human souls, perished in the flames of hatred and violence which had resulted a few months earlier in the partition of the country. Through non-violent methods he had created a nation. At the hour of victory, the country was deprived of his guidance. The long and fruitful Gandhian era (1919—1948 A. D.) came to an end. Gandhi's supreme sacrifice for communal amity, however, was not in vain. His martyrdom strengthened the forces that stood for communal harmony in India.

INDIAN STATES

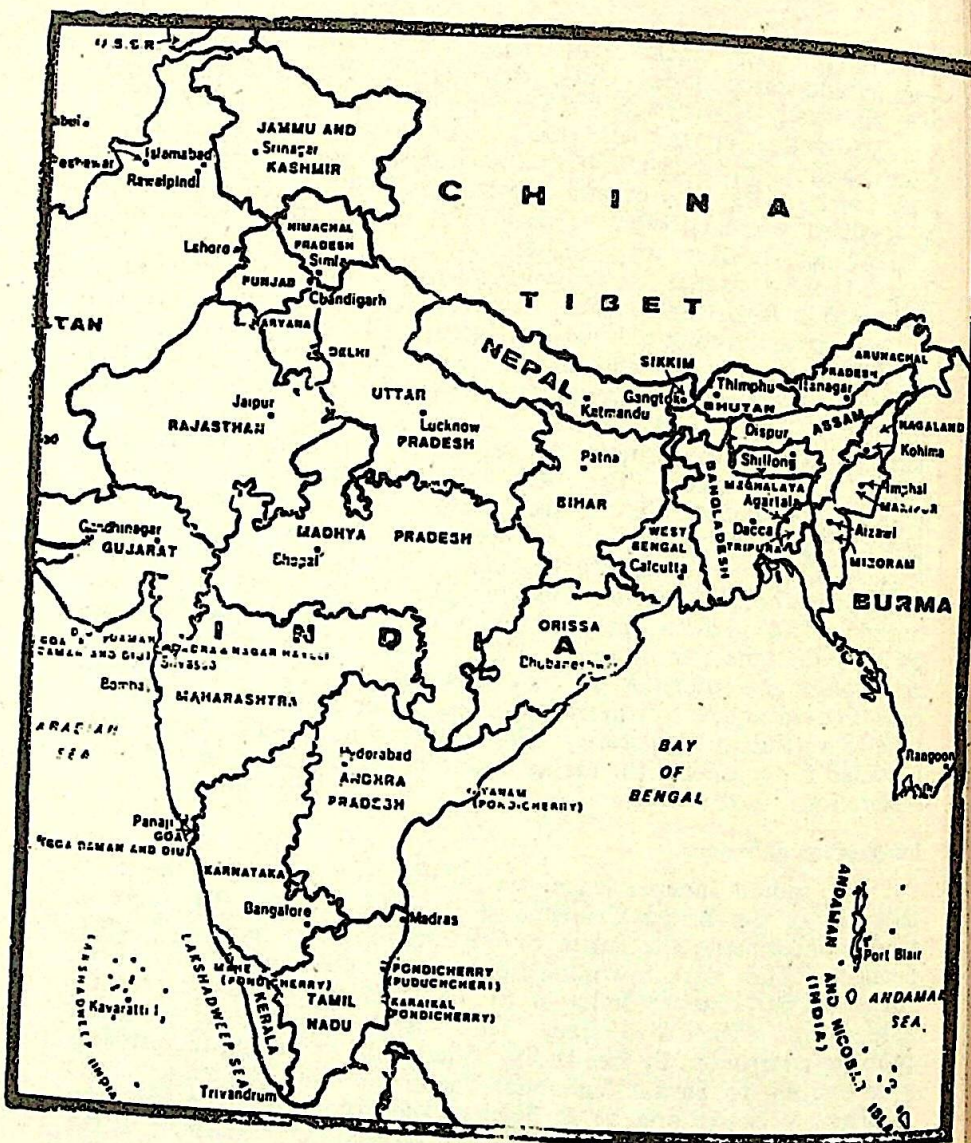
The Crown and the Indian States

By 1856 A. D. Dalhousie had practically completed the British conquest of India. Although the British brought the major portion of India under their direct government, about two-fifths of the country remained under Indian rulers, who acknowledged the suzerainty of the British. The States administered by these rulers were known as Native States. The assumption of the administration of India by the British Crown in 1858 A. D. brought about a new relationship between the government of India and the Native States. Queen Victoria's Proclamation of 1858 gave an assurance to the rulers of the Native States that the Crown desired "no extension of present territorial possessions." Both Hindu and Muslim rulers were allowed to exercise the right of adoption. However, all changes in succession, in order to be valid, had to receive the approval of the Crown as the British had become the undisputed paramount power in India. Although the policy of annexation was abandoned, the British government continued to assert the power of paramountcy with great emphasis. The government of India, representing the Crown, asserted the right to interfere in the internal affairs of a State in case of misgovernment. In 1870 A. D. Lord Mayo superseded the authority of the Raja of Alwar.

In 1875 A. D. the Gaekwar of Baroda was deposed for mal-administration and misconduct. Under the Royal Titles Act of 1876 Queen Victoria was proclaimed as the Empress of India on 1 January 1877. The assumption of this new title by the Queen brought the Indian States within the boundary of the British empire. The princes ceased to be allies; they became vassals. In 1888 A. D. the Maharaja of Kashmir was compelled to resign and entrust the administration to a Council of Regency. In 1892 A. D. the Khan of Kalat was deposed on a charge of misgovernment. When political unrest developed in British India after the partition of Bengal in 1905 A. D., the government thought it wise to secure the co-operation of the princes in meeting the challenge. Lord Curzon and Lord Minto wanted to form a consultative body composed of representatives of different States. Lord Hardinge had this plan in mind when he declared in 1916 the princes as "helpers and colleagues in the great task of imperial rule." The Montague-Chelmsford Report made a definite recommendation for the creation of a "permanent consultative body." Accordingly, the Chamber of Princes was set up, in 1921 A. D. by a Royal Proclamation. The Chamber was to be a consultative body in matters concerning British India and the States in common. In 1929 A. D. the Butler Committee on Indian States declared that the Paramountcy of the Crown was the result of direct tie between the rulers of the Native States and the Crown and as such it could not be transferred to a new government of India responsible to an Indian legislature. The Government of India Act of 1935 provided for a scheme for the accession of the States to the proposed Federation. But the federal part of the Act did not come into force.

Integration of States

The Indian Independence Act of 1947 put an end to the paramountcy of the British Crown over the Native States. The lapse of paramountcy made the rulers of the Native States technically independent. They were now quite free to decide their own future. They could accede either to India or to Pakistan and could even remain independent if they so desired. This was, perhaps, the most difficult problem confronted by free India. The credit of solving the problem goes entirely to Sardar Vallabhai Patel, who was in charge of the Ministry of States and V. P. Menon, the Secretary of the Ministry. Sardar Patel drafted an Instrument of Accession. According to the Instrument, the Union Government was to control only defence, foreign policy and communication of the acceding State until the constitution of India was adopted. It guaranteed that it would not interfere in the domestic affairs of the States. He appealed to the sense of patriotism of the Indian princes and requested them to accede to the Indian Union. As a result of the ceaseless efforts of Sardar Patel, all the States except Junagadh, Hyderabad and Kashmir signed the Instrument of Accession. The Nawab of Junagadh, a small State on the coast of Kathiawar, wanted to accede to Pakistan. But his



States of the Indian Union with their capitals.

subjects compelled him to hand over the State to the Government of India. Its merger to the Indian Union was ratified by a plebiscite. The Nizam of Hyderabad who declared himself independent was forced to accede to India as a result of an internal revolt and timely police action taken by Sardar Patel. The Maharajah of Kashmir who also

delayed accession to India acceded to India in October 1947 when the Pathans and irregular forces of Pakistan invaded the State.

When the difficult task of accession of the Indian princely States was accomplished, there started the more difficult task of their integration with the territories of the Indian Union. Most of them were too small to be administered as separate units. So they were merged with the adjoining provinces with the consent of their rulers. Many other States were grouped together to form unions of States like Patiala and East Punjab States Union (PEPSU) and Travancore-Cochin. When the new Constitution of India came into force in 1950 A. D. Indian Union consisted of Part A, B, C, and D States. Part A States were the former British Indian provinces. Part B States were the Union of former Native States and these were under *Rajapramukhs*. Part C. States were administered by Lieutenant Governors or Chief Commissioners. Union Territory directly administered by the Central Government is listed under Part D.

In response to the demand for the reorganization of the States on linguistic basis, the government constituted the States Reorganization Commission consisting of Mr. Fazl Ali, Sri Hridayanath Kunzru and Sardar K. M. Panikkar. On the basis of the report of the Commission, the States were reorganized. Part B States were abolished. Indian Union was reorganized into 14 States of equal status and 6 territories under central administration. The subsequent period saw further reorganization making the number of States 22 and that of Union Territories 9. The States are: (1) Andhra Pradesh, (2) Assam, (3) Bihar, (4) Gujarat, (5) Haryana, (6) Himachal Pradesh, (7) Jammu and Kashmir, (8) Karnataka, (9) Kerala, (10) Madhya Pradesh, (11) Maharashtra, (12) Manipur, (13) Meghalaya, (14) Nagaland, (15) Orissa, (16) Punjab, (17) Rajasthan, (18) Sikkim, (19) Tamilnadu, (20) Tripura, (21) Uttar Pradesh, and (22) West Bengal. The Union Territories are: (1) Andaman and Nicobar Islands, (2) Arunachal Pradesh, (3) Chandigarh, (4) Dadra and Nagar Haveli, (5) Delhi, (6) Goa, Daman and Diu, (7) Lakshadweep, (8) Mizoram and (9) Pondicherry.

THE CONSTITUTION

The Constitution of India was drawn up by a Constituent Assembly which was initially summoned on 9 December 1946, as a Constituent Assembly for undivided India. With the partition of India, the delegates of the Pakistan area ceased to be members of the Constituent Assembly. On 14 August 1947 the Constituent Assembly met as the sovereign Constituent Assembly for the Dominion of India. A draft Constitution was published in February 1948. The Constitution was finally adopted on 26 November 1949. It came into effect on 26 January 1950.

The Constitution was amended several times from 1951. The Constitution was substantially amended by the Forty-second Amendment Act of 1976.

Main Features of the Constitution

The Preamble of the Constitution declares India to be Sovereign Socialist Secular Democratic Republic. India is a sovereign republic in the sense that it cannot have a monarchical system of government and will be completely free from all external control. It is also a democratic State as the sovereignty rests with the people. The citizens enjoy the right of choosing the agents of administration and also being chosen to the various offices. Another important feature of the Constitution is that it aims at establishing a secular State. It means that the State will not interfere with the spiritual life of the citizens. The Constitution also seeks to make the State socialist. It is by the Forty-second Amendment that the concepts of secularism, socialism and integrity of the nation were spelt out in the Constitution.

The Constitution creates a federal State with a strong Centre, a quasi-federal State. This has been secured through a number of devices such as a long list of federal and concurrent powers, vesting the residuary powers in the Union, a unified Judiciary, a single citizenship for the whole country, common basic laws, Common All-India Services, and the powers of the President to supersede the authority of the States in times of emergency. By the Forty-Second Amendment List III—Concurrent List—of the Seventh Schedule of the Constitution has been enlarged. The Indian Constitution guarantees certain fundamental rights to every individual. These have been grouped under Right to equality, Right to freedom, Right against exploitation, Freedom of religion, Cultural and educational rights, Right to property and Right to constitutional remedies.

The Constitution contains certain Directive Principles of State Policy which are to be followed by the Central and State governments. They are intended for the promotion of the material well-being of the people and the establishment of a Welfare State in India. Directive Principles are not justiciable, i. e., they cannot be enforced by the law courts. Though not justiciable, the Directive Principles are no less important than the Fundamental Rights for that reason. In fact, the Forty-second Amendment has provided for the supremacy of the Directive Principles over the Fundamental Rights. The Forty-second Amendment added to the Constitution ten fundamental duties.

Union Government

The executive power in the Union government is vested in the President who is elected by the elected members of both Houses of

Parliament and State legislatures. The President is the constitutional head of the Republic of India. He is more or less a titular head of the executive, real power being vested in the hands of the council of ministers. The government is run in the name of the President though he cannot run the government except in accordance with the advice of the cabinet. The Forty-second Amendment has made it obligatory on the part of the President to accept the advice of the council of ministers. Directly under the President are the Vice-President and the council of ministers headed by the Prime-Minister. The Vice-President is provided with a comparatively insignificant role by the Indian Constitution. He is the ex-officio Chairman of the Rajya Sabha and shall discharge the functions of the President when the President is unable to discharge his functions. The President appoints only that person as Prime-Minister who is the leader of the majority party in the Lok Sabha. The Constitution provides a unique position for the Prime-Minister. The Union council of ministers exercises the executive powers which are theoretically vested in the President.

The Union Parliament consists of two Houses, the Rajya Sabha and the Lok Sabha. The Rajya Sabha is a permanent body consisting of 250 members of whom 238 are chosen by the States and 12 nominated by the President from among people having special knowledge of literature, science and social sciences. One-third of its members will retire at the end of every two years. The Lok Sabha consists of not more than 545 members directly elected on the basis of adult suffrage. The Lok Sabha whose life is five years, is the lower house of Parliament.

State Government

Each State has a governor as its executive head. Under him are the council of ministers headed by a Chief Minister. The council of ministers is responsible to the State Legislature. Some States have bicameral legislatures while others have unicameral legislatures.

An elaborate machinery is provided for the fruitful co-operation between the Centre and the States.

Judiciary

The Judiciary is organized with the Supreme Court at the apex. High Courts for different States and for Union Territories, and subordinate courts functioning under them at district and lower levels. Independence of the judiciary against the intrusion of the executive and the legislature is noticeably preserved.

ELECTIONS AND GOVERNMENTS

The first general elections under the new Constitution were held in 1952, the second in 1957, the third in 1962, the fourth in 1967.

the fifth in 1971 and the Sixth in 1977 A. D. In both the first and second general elections the Congress Party was voted to power in the Centre and in the majority of States. Dr. Rajendra Prasad was elected President of India and Dr. S. Radhakrishnan was elected Vice-President after the first general elections. They were re-elected to these posts in 1957 A. D. after the second general elections. Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, who was the leader of the Congress Party, became the first Prime Minister of the Republic after the general elections of 1951-52 and continued as Prime Minister of India after the second general elections also. In the third general elections held in 1962 the Congress Party was again voted to power. While Jawaharlal Nehru continued as Prime Minister, Dr. S. Radhakrishnan became President and Dr. Zakir Hussain, the Vice-President. On the death of Jawaharlal Nehru on 27 May 1964, a caretaker Ministry under Gulzarilal Nanda assumed office. Meanwhile, the Congress Party elected Lal Bahadur Shastri as its new leader, and Shastri was sworn in as Prime Minister on 9 June 1964. Lal Bahadur Shastri passed away at Tashkent on 11 January 1966. The Congress Party elected Mrs. Indira Gandhi as leader and she assumed office on 24 January 1966. The fourth general elections were held in 1967 A. D. The ruling Congress Party was returned to power with a reduced majority. Mrs. Gandhi continued as Prime Minister while Dr. Zakir Hussain and V. V. Giri became President and Vice-President respectively. Zakir Hussain suddenly died May 1969. Thereupon, V. V. Giri and G. S. Pathak were elected President and Vice President respectively. V. V. Giri was elected defeating the official candidate of the Party, N. Sanjiva Reddi. This became possible only because Mrs. Gandhi declared support to Mr. Giri. This led to a split in the Congress Party. In the wake of the split in the Party, Mrs. Gandhi dissolved the Lok Sabha and appealed to the electorate for a fresh mandate for the implementation of her policies and programmes. In the fifth general elections held in February-March 1971, the Congress Party under the leadership of Mrs. Gandhi obtained a clear two-thirds majority. A new government was formed with Mrs. Gandhi as Prime Minister. In August 1974 Fakhruddin Ali Ahmed and B. D. Jatti were elected and sworn in as President and Vice-President respectively.

On 25 June 1975, on the advice of Prime Minister Mrs. Gandhi, the President declared a state of emergency in the country. Fundamental rights were suspended and complete press censorship was introduced. All important leaders of opposition, including Jayaprakash Narayan and Morarji Desai were arrested and detained. Agitations and demonstrations against the government were put down by force. Strikes were banned in industries. Discontent with the government, however, increased, although it could not be expressed as even peaceful protests were prohibited. In January 1977, Mrs. Gandhi announced that fresh general elections would be held to Parliament. The detained leaders were set free and the

emergency was relaxed. The Congress (O), Swatantra Party, Jan Sangh, Bharatiya Lok Dal and the Socialist Party united and formed a new party called the Janata Party and opposed the Congress under Indira Gandhi. In the elections held in March 1977, the new Party gained a majority in the Lok Sabha and formed a government headed by Morarji Desai as the Prime Minister. The emergency has been revoked and civil liberties restored to the people.

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL CHANGES

One of the major tasks before the government of independent India was to speed up the economic development of the country. A Planning Commission was set up in March 1950 to draft a plan for economic development. The First Five Year Plan was implemented from 1951 to 1956. Since then India has had four Five Year Plans.

The years under the Plans saw a remarkable economic development of India. Unprecedented growth was recorded in the field of agriculture, industry, trade, transport and communication, and social services. Many new industries have been started including steel, heavy engineering, machine tools, fertilizers, oil refinery and production of innumerable consumer goods hitherto not made in India. Vast river valley projects have provided water for irrigation and electric power. Railway, road, sea and air transport has expanded enormously.

Facilities for medical care expanded very much. Independent India has achieved remarkable progress in the sphere of education, science and technology. New universities came into existence. The number of schools, colleges, medical colleges, engineering colleges and polytechnics has increased greatly. The Indian Institutes of Technology have brought about great progress in technological education, while the Institutes for Management Studies have provided trained managers for the new industries. Great progress was achieved in respect of scientific research by the great National Laboratories set up in different parts of the country. Special attention was given to research and development of atomic energy through the formation of the Atomic Energy Commission. In May 1974 India exploded an atomic device thereby demonstrating that she had mastered the use of atomic energy. The government of India has declared that it will use atomic energy only for peaceful purposes, especially for economic development, and that it has no intention of making atomic weapons.

Changes of far-reaching significance are taking place in the society also. The custom-ridden and tradition-bound Hindu society is fast giving way to a modern society centred on the individual. The joint family system is fast breaking down and the caste rules are no longer cared for. The Hindu Code Bill which unified the personal and social laws among the Hindus and brought them in

line with modern ideas has been an important achievement. Great strides have been recorded in regard to the improvement of the position of women in society. Indian women are no longer completely tied to the drudgery of the kitchen. On the other hand, they occupy positions of importance along with men in all walks of life. Another major step taken in the sphere of social progress was the declaration making untouchability an offence. The Harijans have been given special privileges in the matter of education and employment to bring them up on a par with others.

However, many problems remain unsolved. There is large-scale unemployment. The prices of all types of goods have been rising steeply causing untold hardships to the common people. More than forty percent of the people live below poverty line. Caste rules and communal jealousies still enslave the minds of many. However, the stirrings of a new life are visible everywhere. A new socio-economic order is in the anvil.

INDIA AND WORLD AFFAIRS

Independent India has been following a policy of peace and good-will towards all nations. The economic and social betterment of her people which is the main concern of independent India made her accept this policy of peace. This objective could be realized only in an atmosphere of peace. The Directive Principles of State Policy in the Indian Constitution enjoin that the State shall promote international peace and security and encourage the settlement of international disputes by arbitration. Hence, the foreign policy of India has been a policy of non-alignment or dynamic neutralism. India refused to join either of the two power blocs, the Anglo-American bloc and the Soviet bloc, that emerged after the conclusion of the Second World War. India also refused to join the South-East Asiatic Treaty Organization (SEATO) or any such military alliance, and pursued a policy calculated to reduce tension and promote world peace. The foreign policy of India as evolved by India's first Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru may be summed up as follows: non-alignment with either of the power blocs; full support for all colonial people struggling for independence; condemnation of the policy of racial discrimination; promotion of world peace; and faith in the United Nations for the maintenance of peace in the world. In a Joint Statement issued on 28 June 1954 by the Prime Ministers of India and China, they announced five principles called the *Panch-Sheela*. These principles were to regulate the relations among the sovereign States. The *Panch-Sheela* was in fact a restatement of the basic principles of India's foreign policy. Mutual respect for each others territorial integrity and sovereignty, non-aggression, non-interference in each other's internal affairs, equality and mutual benefit, and peaceful co-existence constituted the *Panch Sheela*. While India refused to join any power bloc or military pact, she

accepted the membership of the United Nations, and inspite of the republican character of her Constitution she became a full member of the Commonwealth of Nations.

Dynamic Neutralism at Work

During the past 31 years since the attainment of independence, India has been playing a leading role in world affairs through the United Nations, the Commonwealth of Nations and through a series of international conferences held during this period. India has been making it clear to the world that her neutralism is positive and dynamic. India played an active part in the implementation of the Colombo Plan evolved by the conference of the Foreign Ministers of the Commonwealth Countries held at Colombo in January 1951. India is one of the first countries to extend recognition to the People's Republic of China when it came into existence in 1949 A. D. For long, China was denied membership of the United Nations. India strove relentlessly for the admission of China into the United Nations, even after China turned aggressively against India, until she was admitted to the membership of the world body on 25 October 1971. India's relations with the countries of Asia and Africa have been particularly close. Since the attainment of independence, India became insistent on the abolition of colonialism in Asia and Africa. The Asian Conference organized in Delhi in 1947 was a precursor of this growing interest in Asian affairs. Indonesia achieved her Independence mainly as a result of the conference on Indonesia held in Delhi in 1949. A Conference of the countries of Asia and Africa held at Bandung in Indonesia in April 1955 underlined the part played by India in promoting world peace. In the establishment of peace in Korea and Indo-China, India was of great help to the United Nations. India played a very useful role in finding a solution to the Suez Canal problem. When the peoples of Tunisia, East Africa and Morocco started the struggle for independence, India extended her support to these countries. Similarly, the former Italian colonies of Lybia, Eretria and Somaliland owe their independence, to some extent, to India's strong advocacy of their cause. India vehemently condemned the apartheid policy of the South African government. India played a very important part in resolving the West Asian Crisis in 1958 which resulted in the withdrawal of the British and U. S. forces from Jordan and Labanon. The Fourteen Nation Conference at Geneva on Laos was held at her initiative. India has always taken active interest in disarmament. Today India plays a significant role in championing the cause of human rights all over the world.

Chinese Aggression

In spite of India's best efforts to promote the cause of peace and international understanding, she was forced into a war with the People's Republic of China in 1962. On 20 October 1962, the Chinese communists invaded the country by launching aggressive attacks in the Ladakh

region of Kashmir, and the North-East Frontier tract. The feelings of the people of India were stirred by this unwarranted and naked aggression by China on India's soil, and the entire people rallied round the Government of India to resist the aggression. However, India suffered some military reverses. The war came to a close with the eventual withdrawal of the Chinese forces from the Indian territory. The relations between India and China have not improved since the war of 1962.

Indo-Pakistan War of 1965

In September 1965 Pakistan unleashed a war against India presumably to establish her alleged rights over Kashmir. This war lasted only for 22 days and came to close when the United Nations on 23 September intervened in the quarrel to mediate between the two powers on the Indian sub-continent. Later, on the requests of Kosygen, the Soviet Prime Minister, Pakistan President Ayub Khan and Indian Prime Minister Lal Bahadur Sastri met at Tashkent and signed an agreement on 10 August 1966 containing proposals for the peaceful settlement of the problems that strained the relations between India and Pakistan.

Indo-Pakistan War of 1971

The situation created by the patriotic upheaval in East Bengal under the leadership of Shiek Mujibur Rahman against Pakistani military dictatorship in March 1971 and the civil war that followed led to the influx of ten million refugees into India. America, and China gave active help to President Yahya Khan of Pakistan to crush the rebellion of the Bengalis. India was now forced to give support to the Bengalis in her own self-interest. The Government of India also entered into a treaty of mutual friendship and assistance with the Soviet Union on 9 August 1971 in a bold move to meet the Pakistani-Chinese threat to India's internal security.

On 3 December 1971, the Pakistani army launched large-scale air attacks on the airfields and cantonments of North India. This led to the outbreak of a full-fledged war between India and Pakistan. The Indian army advanced into the Pakistani territory in Sind, West Punjab and occupied Kashmir and captured more than 5,600 square miles of Pakistani territory. Simultaneously, the Indian forces marched into East Bengal and inflicted a crushing defeat on the Pakistan soldiers fighting there. The Indian Air Force and Indian Navy lent full support to the army in its campaigns. The fall of Dacca on 16 December 1971 marked the climax of the war in East Pakistan and the Pakistan Army there formally surrendered to the joint command of the Indian army and the Bangladesh militia (Mukti Bahani) on the same day.

Even when the war commenced, India had recognized Bangladesh as a free sovereign state. With the formal surrender of the Pakistani

army Dacca emerged as the free capital of a free country. The defeat of the Pakistan in the east led to the demoralisation of Pakistani soldiers in the western sector also. As India had achieved her objective in the eastern sector and was not interested in prolonging the conflict any further, India announced a unilateral cease-fire on 17 December 1971. Pakistan also stopped fighting soon after. Thus, the 14-day war ended in a spectacular military victory for India. Within three months of the liberation of Bangladesh, the Indian army completely withdrew from that country.

The emergence of Bangladesh as a friendly neighbour on the eastern border altered the balance of power in the sub-continent in favour of India. India signed a formal treaty of friendship and assistance with Bangladesh on 18 March 1972 during Prime Minister Indira Gandhi's visit to Dacca.

The Simla Agreement

In December 1971, following defeat at the hands of the Indian army, Yahya Khan, the military dictator of Pakistan had fallen from power and a new civilian government with Z. A. Bhutto as President came to power at Islamabad. President Bhutto and Prime Minister Indira Gandhi, following summit talk held at Simla, signed an agreement between the two countries on 3 July 1972. According to the Simla Agreement, the two countries decided to put an end to the conflict and confrontation that had hitherto marred their mutual relations and work for the promotion of peace on the sub-continent. India and Pakistan agreed to withdraw their respective forces to their side of the international border except in Jammu and Kashmir where the line of control resulting from the cease-fire of 17 December 1971 was to be respected. The concrete outcome of this clause in the Simla Agreement was that Pakistan under-took to vacate 69.2 sq. miles out of 121.77 sq. miles of Indian territory occupied in the war while India was to withdraw from the 5,130.10 sq. miles out of 5,619.06 sq. miles of Pakistani territory under her control.

The Simla Agreement of July 1972 was hailed everywhere as a historic step towards the establishment of durable peace in the Indian sub-continent. However, the implementation of the Agreement presented serious difficulties in respect of troop withdrawal and the cession of occupied territories. These difficulties were overcome in due course by bilateral talks between the Army Commanders of the two countries, and the withdrawal of troops was completed in December 1972.

The question of repatriation of the Pakistani prisoners of war held in India was left unsettled by the Agreement pending the recognition of Bangladesh by Pakistan. At the Delhi Conference of August 1973 the representatives of India and Pakistan came to a broad agreement on the question of the repatriation of war prisoners. However, the refusal of Pakistan to recognize Bangladesh as a free

country delayed the process of reconciliation. Pakistan and Bangladesh recognized each other only in February 1978. Mr. Atal Behari Vajpayee, the External Minister of the Government of India, visited Pakistan. This was the first visit by an Indian Minister to that country in the last 30 years. The visit was only a good will mission. Agreements have been reached in principle on wider economic relations, and on freer exchange of citizens and ideas. This represents a step forward in political normalization.

Thus, India has, with her commitment to internal progress and external peace, emerged out as one of the most powerful nations in the world.

QUESTIONS

1. Describe how the integration of States was brought in India after independence.
2. Bring out the salient features of the Indian Constitution.
3. Briefly describe the economic and social progress achieved in India after independence.
4. Briefly describe the part played by India in world since independence.

Short-answer Type

1. Point out the results of the partition of India.
2. Write a paragraph each on the following (a) Chinese aggression, 1962, (b) Indo-Pakistan War, 1965 and (c) Indo-Pakistan War, 1971.
3. Briefly explain the significance of the Simla Agreement.

Objective Type

A. Name the following:

- (a) The Secretary of the States Ministry under Sardar Patel
- (b) The member of the States Reorganization Commission
- (c) The Indian leader who died at Tashkent.

B. Match the following:

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. The Royal Titles Act of 1907 | Queen Victoria |
| 2. Mrs. Indira Gandhi | Proclamation of Emergency |
| 3. Jawaharlal Nehru | Pancha Sheela |
| 4. Mukti Bahini | Bangladesh |

Map Question

Indicate on the outline map provided the States of the Indian Union with their capitals.

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